DESCRIPTION OF DONINGTON-PARK, LEICESTERSHIRE.

With a perſpective View of its beautiful Scenery.

TOPOGRAPHERS, from there having been a caſtle formerly here, have called the whole by the name of Caſtle-Donington; by others it has been called Donington Park Hall, alluding to the preſent manſion, or more commonly, Donington-park, which latter name we ſhall adopt in this account, for the particulars of which we are indebted partly to Mr. Throſby, and partly to the author of the Topographer.

Donington-park, the ſeat of earl Moira, is ſituate in the utmoſt northern limits of the county, ten miles from Loughborough, and twenty-one from Leiceſter, and about a mile from the village of Caſtle-Donington, ſo called from an ancient caſtle, now levelled with the ground, built by the Bellomonts, firſt earls of Leiceſter, from whom it afterward came to John Lacy, who procured the privilege of a market or fair from king Edward 1, but they have been long diſcontinued.

His ſucceſſor and ſon and heir, Henry de Lacy, having no male iſſue, this eſtate paſſed with his only daughter Alice, in marriage to Thomas Plantagenet, earl of Lancaſter, on whoſe family ſhe ſettled all her lands, though ſhe had no iſſue by him. But when, as in that great proſcription of the barons under king Edward II, the hereditary rights of Thomas earl of Lancaſter, and Alice Lacy, his wife, were ſeized into the king's hands, and alienated in divers ways, the king enforced her to releaſe this manor unto Hugh Le Deſpenſer the younger, whoſe father had been created earl of Wincheſter, but they enjoyed neither their honour, nor eſtate long, for king Edward being depoſed, they were both executed, and this manor, together with their other eſtates, fell to the crown. In this ſtate it continued till the reign of queen Eliſabeth, when Robert earl of Eſſex, having obtained a grant of the park, ſold it in the latter end of her reign, to George, earl of Huntingdon, whoſe deſcendants came to reſide here upon the decay of their ancient caſtle of Aſhby de la Zouch.

The edifice is a low ſtructure, and its appearance detached from the views about it, has nothing to attract the particular notice of a ſtranger; but the ſcenery around is extremely beautiful. Donington cliff, (ſays Mr. Throſby) verging on the river Trent, is a fine and marking feature; you ſee the ſite of its caſtle; and you are almoſt compelled to ſee, in idea, its lofty towers, touching the paſſing clouds. The eminence is luxuriouſly clothed with fine hanging wood; and the river below is rich in ſilver ſtreams, paſſing along the banks of extenſive meadows ſome miles in length. The town of Donington, with its taper ſpire, is a romantic ſcene. As to the park, it is one of the richeſt in pictureſque beauty; its gentle ſwells, its verdure, and the beauteous aſſemblage of trees thereon, are ſplendid charms to the amateurs of natural pictures. Our firſt maſters of landſcape-painting might here add to their ſtores of ſelected beauties, for here is a pleaſing diverſity of ſtudies for the pencil.

The houſe, which has lately undergone conſiderable alterations, contains many pictures worth ſeeing. Mr. Throſby has enumerated ſome of the beſt. In the dining-room are two fine heads, one on either ſide the door; one by Rembrant. Here are alſo portraits of the earl of Pembroke; Francis, earl of Huntingdon, in Henry VI's time; Henry, earl of Huntingdon, who was preſident in the north; a lady Haſtings, daughter of lord Harrington; a lady Dudley; lord Loughborough, in Charles the firſt's time; George, earl of Huntingdon, by ſir Godfrey Kneller; Charles Brandon, duke of Suffolk, 1544, aged ſixty-four, a venerable face; the pre-

ſent marquis Cornwallis, by Gainſborough; mademoiſelle de Goudes, is a pretty portrait; and a boy with a bird's neſt has merit; a duke of Clarence, in armour, in Edward IV's time.

The *hall* is a low room, and was formerly a chapel; the ceiling is ſupported by pillars in the middle, and it has ſome curious carving upon the beams. Here is a fine buſt of Cromwell in marble, done by Wilton; it ſecured the artiſt an honourable employment under his preſent majeſty. Oppoſite to Cromwell is a buſt of Peter the Great, brought by the late earl from abroad; eſteemed a good likeneſs, and is a good piece of ſculpture, but in Mr. Throſby's opinion, has not the marks of greatneſs in the countenance.

In the *library*, is a Dutch piece, and one or two battle pieces of ſome merit. But the beſt piece in this room is king Solomon and the queen of Sheba, by old Stone. Little inferior to that is a ſmall ſea piece; beſide which is the late king of Pruſſia; and ſome religious figures on wainſcot pannels, taken from Aſhby-de-la-Zouch caſtle, painted on both ſides.

In the *gallery*, is the late earl's father; a fine whole length of earl Moira, by Gainſborough; Robert, earl Ferrers, lady Huntingdon's uncle; a whole length of Charles the firſt's queen; ducheſs of Cleveland; Francis, lord Haſtings; marſhal Loudohn; the late emperor of Germany (Joſeph); and a fine view of Venice, which came out of the collection of the Shirley family, the figures very finely executed.

In Mr. Dawſon (the ſteward's) room, are ſome fine old miniature paintings preſerved in a ſmall cheſt, among which are two by Cooper; ſir John Lewis; and Lewis, counteſs of Huntingdon, wife of Ferdinando. Queen Eliſabeth's is a fine miniature; and ſo is the lady of Henry, earl of Huntingdon, preſident to the north, done by Oliver. In the cheſt alſo is preſerved a beautiful reſtoration medal, the weight of ſixteen guineas; it appears now as if immediately from the mint. In it alſo is preſerved a fine head, ſet with rubies.

Of the honorable deſcent of the noble owner of this manſion, it is needleſs to ſpeak. His lordſhip is well known, not only for the princely liberality of his diſpoſition, and courteous manners, but for his bravery in war, and his abilities as a ſtateſman, which, if we are not miſinformed, are ſoon to be called into action.

AN OPPRESSIVE TAX.

[From 'Senilities, or Solitary Amuſements,' by the Editor of the Spiritual Quixote, &c.]

THIS accumulated tax on port-wine is a very ſerious affair; it is taxing the neceſſaries of life; and ſtrikes at the very root of all conviviality, good-fellowſhip, and Chriſtian benevolence. Every profeſſion, law, phyſic, and divinity, and men of every rank, the country gentleman, and gentleman-farmer, muſt feel the baneful effects of it.

Not to mention the great pleaders at the bar, to whom plenty of wine is eſſential, and muſt be had at any price, to overcome their uſual baſhfulneſs, when the liberty and property of their clients are at ſtake; how can a country attorney attend market, and accompliſh his benevolent purpoſe, of *reconciling* his neighbours, and making *peace* between contending parties, without his bottle of port at the Roſe and Crown?

What phyſician of eminence could ever write claſſical Latin, or preſcribe intelligibly, till he was inſpired by a bottle of port? So that the health and life of his majeſty's ſubjects is really implicated in that pernicious tax.

And how cruel it is to deprive a poor country divine of a comfortable glaſs after the duty of the day; when he has been exhauſting his ſpirits in preaching up temperance and ſobriety, with the utmoſt exertion, for ten, twelve, and ſometimes perhaps *fifteen* minutes, without intermiſſion?

And how can a poor farmer, ſince the reduction of the price of corn by the *arbitrary* proceedings of the legiſlature, afford himſelf a bottle of *Pourt*, when probably he has two or three daughters, who cannot attend divine ſervice for want of a muſlin chemiſe, or ſilk petticoat?

But, after all, ſupplies muſt be raiſed, and taxes be impoſed on the neceſſaries as well as the luxuries of life: let us then make the beſt of what cannot be avoided.

Perhaps, the dearneſs of wine may be attended with the ſame beneficial effects as the late ſcarcity of bread; and make us more ſparing in the uſe of it, or find ſome ſubſtitute in its room.

Let the ladies then, after dinner, be content with three glaſſes, the number of the Graces; and the gentlemen with nine, the number of the Muſes.

The taſte for port-wine, like that for tobacco, is an acquired taſte; and ſipping glaſs after glaſs, a mere idle habit. If a man then cannot quit his ſeat at table till he has tippled his hour, and cannot afford a pint of port, let him have his pot of *port-er*; or, if the halfpenny additional tax diſtreſs him, let him ſmoke a dry pipe; or, as children ſometimes do, let this habitual toper ſuck his thumb, till he ſinks into a pleaſing ſlumber, and

'Tipples imaginary pots of ale,'

and loſes all ſenſes of taxes, of the toils and troubles of life, in profound oblivion.

SUSPICIOUS MEETING.

[From the SAME.]

Latet anguis in herba. VIRG.

WHEN thoſe tumultuous aſſemblies, called *Routs*, are daily multiplying in Bath, and all the provincial towns, as well as in the metropolis, and which evidently come within the act againſt ſeditious meetings; it behoves the magiſtrates to keep a watchful eye on their proceedings. For, as there appears no *viſible* motive, either of pleaſure or of emolument, for five or ſix hundred people crowding together, in hot rooms, at theſe nocturnal meetings, depend upon it, there is ſome ſecret conſpiracy that ſhuns the light, lurking under this appearance of apathy and diſſipation.

A great part of the company indeed ſeem to be no otherwiſe employed, than in ſtrolling up and down the rooms, and ſtaring at each other with unmeaning vacant faces; yet there are certainly ſome dark deſigns and diabolical machinations carrying on in thoſe little juntos in the corner of the room, and *behind the curtains* in the bow-windows.

There are, indeed, four (I ſuppoſe emigrant) crowned heads, and their royal conſorts, who generally attend thoſe aſſemblies; and who may be thought a ſufficient pledge for the loyalty of the company. But there are likewiſe ſomeſly deſigning *knaves*, and ill-looking fellows in ſhort great coats, who, beſide the ſuſpicion of their ſtealing *hearts*, and pilfering *diamonds*, under pretence of gallantry, have, probably, ſome political ſcheme to put in execution. They have no fire-arms, indeed, but they have ſome ſhort *clubs*, and concealed weapons, which ſeem to indicate ſome murderous intention.

In ſhort, the magiſtrates ſhould not only attend theſe dangerous aſſemblies, which (to do them juſtice, they gene-

rally do); but they ſhould alſo inveſt the chairmen with *Conſtabularian* authority, that they may be at hand in caſe of any treaſonable or burglarious practices; to prevent any ſeditious harangues againſt the government and conſtitution; or any violation of the ſecurity of locks and keys, or domeſtic padlocks, and the like felonious atrocities.

SYMPTOMS OF SELF-IMPORTANCE.

[From the SAME.]

I will frown, as I paſs by; and let them take it as they liſt. SHAKS.

AS I am an idle man, and live in the vicinity of Bath, I ſpend many of my mornings in traverſing the ſtreets and public walks of that beautiful city. The magnificence of the many elegant buildings, and the cheerfulneſs of the ſcene, ſooth the imagination and tranquillize the ſpirits. Yet I find the calm compoſure of my mind frequently interrupted, and my nerves unpleaſantly irritated, by the haughty and faſtidious looks of thoſe I meet.

Though I will not ſubſcribe to the infallibility of Lavater's ſyſtem of phyſiognomy; yet the feelings of every one, without any rules, may interpret the ſentiments of moſt people, from the air and caſt of their countenances.

Man is by nature ſociable and friendly to man: and when there is no oppoſition of intereſts, rarely harbours any malicious or hoſtile diſpoſitions againſt his fellow-creatures. Whence then are thoſe unfriendly, contemptuous, and repulſive airs, which we continually meet with in thoſe with whom we have no connection, and whom we have never injured or offended? Who ſurvey us with ſuch a ſupercilious, diſdainful mien, as if they queſtioned our right to exiſt in the ſame diſtrict, or even on the face of the ſame globe with themſelves.

I ſometimes meet a man ſo ſtately in his deportment, ſo haughty in his look, with ſuch an air of defiance in his whole manner, that I ſhrink from his appearance, and feel myſelf annihilated in his preſence. Yet, on recovering from my diſmay, and reflecting on the limited power and capacity of every human being, I find, probably, on enquiry, the real character of this illuſtrious perſonage; that his pompous air contains a mean ſpirit, and that the ſolemn countenance is only a veil for his ignorance and inſignificance.

Such are many of thoſe coloſſal figures, who ſeem to 'beſtride the world, and under whoſe legs, as it were, we petty mortals muſt *peep about*,' to find a loop-hole to paſs by them, without being cruſhed againſt the wall, or joſtled in the kennel.

One man, whom I have met, perhaps, at a third place, aſſumes a reſerved and diſtant air, leſt I ſhould claim him as an acquaintance *. Another man, with eyes fixed, looks ſtrait forward, and though our elbows almoſt touch, ſeems unconſcious that any one is near him, or at leaſt worthy his notice.

A third is nearſighted, and though we have met perhaps on various occaſions, has not the honour to recollect my name. All theſe are different ſtratagems of pride and ſelf-importance, which, though not reducible to the preciſe rules of quarrelling, like the lie direct, and for which we can call a man to an account; yet may, and ought to be reſented, or rather treated with the contempt which they deſerve.

I remember a ſtout fellow, with a moſt terrific countenance, who, if he met a man ſtrutting along in ſublime

* The Tapino-phoby, or dread of *low* acquaintance, prevails more in Bath, perhaps, than in any other public place in Europe.

contemplation of his own importance, and a ſovereign contempt of all around him, would, on a ſudden, run up to him, turn his large white eyes upon him, and cry Boh! This, it may be ſuppoſed, often involved him in a ſcuffle, or rough rencounter; but generally raiſed a laugh at the expence of the haughty deſpot.

A proud look is an inſult on the public. Pride was not made for man; nor for woman neither. Yet I have ſeen a fair ſpinſter, rather paſt her bloom, who has been converſing with a polite ſmile in the midſt of two or three gentlemen; but on the appearance of a young nymph in the gloſſy luſtre of fifteen, aſſume a haughty air, and ſurvey the bluſhing harmleſs virgin, with ſuch a murderous aſpect, that I have been alarmed for the conſequences.

What then do I expect from thoſe whom I meet in public, and who certainly have a right to *look*, as well as to *act*, as they pleaſe, in defiance of my aſſumed cenſorian authority. Why; I expect, that every man ſhould look with an air of kindneſs and benignity on all mankind; or, at leaſt, not to aſſume a hoſtile or menacing aſpect toward thoſe who have never injured or offended him.

Let a man of rank or diſtinction aſſume the dignity becoming his ſtation and character; but let not thoſe who have no rank, nor, perhaps, any character, to diſtinguiſh them from the vulgar, affect that ſuperiority, which is an affront to every one they meet, and which will not eaſily be allowed them in a country of true liberty, and where education and virtue make the only real diſtinction, and where men will not be impoſed upon or kept in awe by a ſolemn appearance or arrogant pretenſions.

ACCOUNT *of a* DESCENT *into the* CRATER *of* MOUNT VESUVIUS *by eight Frenchmen, on the Night between the* 18*th and* 19*th of July* 1801.

TO aſcend to the ſummit of mount Veſuvius, which is elevated 3600 feet above the level of the ſea, is an enterpriſe of great difficulty, as it is neceſſary for nearly half the height to climb an exceedingly ſteep declivity up to the knees in aſhes. Some philoſophical men of eminence, however, as Spallanzani, Dolomieu, Dr. Moore, &c. have overcome all theſe difficulties. Sir William Hamilton, who cauſed a great many views of Veſuvius to be deſigned during his long reſidence at Naples, aſcended to the ſummit of it ſixty-two times; but no one, at leaſt ſince the eruption in 1779, ever ventured to deſcend into the crater of this volcano, not even ſir William Hamilton, who conſidered it under ſo many points of view, and who viſited it ſo many times. It was reſerved for eight Frenchmen to hazard this dangerous enterpriſe, and to ſucceed in it completely, notwithſtanding the timidity of their guides, the impoſſibility which the Neapolitans attached to it, and the inſtances they mentioned of raſh travellers who had loſt their lives in the attempt, and been ſwallowed up by the volcano.

To be able to appreciate the danger of this enterpriſe, it will be neceſſary to have a correct idea of the form and poſition of Veſuvius, and of the matters which it throws up. This volcano has the form of a truncated cone, and a part of its baſe, which is altogether three leagues in circumference, is waſhed by the Mediterranean; its mouth, or upper baſe, which is a little inclined to the axis, is 5722 feet in circumference. The earth from the baſe to half the height conſiſts of vegetable mould mixed with lava and ſtones which have not been attacked by the fire, tufas, pumice, and calcareous ſtones, different in their nature and colour according to the different degrees of impreſſion which have been made on them by the fire.

The half of the height next the ſummit is compoſed chiefly of pure

aſhes, but coarſer than our common aſhes. Till the preſent time, there have been twenty-four eruptions recorded in hiſtory. The firſt took place in the year 79 after the Chriſtian era: by theſe eruptions volcanic matters have been ſucceſſively accumulated, but by that of 1779, the ſituation of the crater and of the aperture was entirely changed. The focus or crater is now ſunk 200 feet below the upper edges of the mouth of the volcano.

To arrive at the crater, and to obſerve the numerous ſpiracles, long crevices, and fires which iſſue from them in ſeveral places, and alſo the variegated and ſtill ſmoking matters of which the crater is compoſed, it was neceſſary to paſs over this ſpace of 200 feet.

The inner ſides of the volcano are nearly perpendicular, or exceedingly ſteep, and compoſed of aſhes, lava, and large calcareous ſtones; but theſe lava and ſtones, as they form no connection with the aſhes, cannot ſerve as any point of ſupport; and when any one is ſo imprudent as to adhere to this kind of rock, the leaſt motion, the leaſt diſplacement of any part, makes the whole crumble to pieces. Beſides, from the ſummit of Veſuvius to the crater, the declivity, being exceedingly rapid, cannot be traverſed but on all fours, and ſuffering yourſelf to glide down amid a torrent of aſhes and lava. But the moſt dangerous obſtacles are thoſe awful excavations, which cannot be paſſed over without great trouble and difficulty.

Diſregarding the terror with which the Neapolitans endeavoured to inſpire us, after having received their adieus, as if our ſeparation had been likely to be eternal, we ſet out in a carriage, at half after eleven at night, on the 18th of July, from the hotel of the French ambaſſador, fourteen in number, furniſhed with ropes and other articles which we ſuppoſed might be neceſſary, and all in a ſtate of the higheſt ſpirits, which never forſook us, even at times of the moſt imminent danger. We arrived about midnight at the foot of Veſuvius; and, having quitted our carriage, mounted well experienced mules, and proceeding one after the other, with adjutant Dampierre at our head, amid the thick darkneſs of night, reached half way to the ſteep ſummit of the mountain. We had a numerous body of guides, and their lighted torches gave to our expedition a myſterious and ſolemn air, which formed a ſtriking contraſt with the mirth and gayety of the company.

When we had aſcended about half way, we were obliged to alight, and to clamber up the ſteepeſt and moſt difficult part of Veſuvius, wading through the aſhes up to the knees, till, exhauſted with fatigue, and covered with ſweat, we reached the ſummit at half paſt two in the morning.

The firſt thing that ſtruck us, as ſoon as the morning began to dawn, was a moſt magnificent ſpectacle—a ſuperb view of the city and port of Naples, the beautiful hills which ſurround them, and the vaſt extent of the ſea by which they are waſhed. After walking round part of the aperture of the volcano, that we might chooſe the moſt commodious place for deſcending, adjutant Dampierre and C. Wickar firſt deſcended, without any accident, at the determined point. When they had got about a third of the way they were ſuddenly ſtopped by an excavation of fifty feet, which it was neceſſary to paſs. As they found that it was impoſſible to obtain any fixed point of ſupport on aſhes ſo moveable; and being convinced that the friction of ropes would have ſoon deſtroyed both the point of ſupport and the neighbouring maſſes to a great diſtance, they reſolved to return. Beſides, while deliberating on the means of deſcending, ſome ſtones rolling down from the ſummit occaſioned a general agitation wherever they paſſed: adjutant Dampierre found the ground on which he ſtood ſhake beneath his feet; and he had ſcarcely quitted it, calling out to C. Wickar to follow

him, when it diſappeared. Soon after, indeed, the whole place where they had ſtood, and all the neighbouring ſmall eminences, crumbled down ſucceſſively in the courſe of half an hour, and were precipitated to the bottom of the crater with an awful noiſe.

Before we renounced our enterpriſe to return to Naples, dejected on account of not having ſucceeded, we once more walked round the mouth of the crater, and at laſt diſcovered a long declivity, pretty ſmooth though very ſteep, which conducted to the focus. Without examining the precipices which it might be neceſſary to paſs before it could be reached, C. Debeer, the ambaſſador's ſecretary, accompanied by a lazzaroni, ſet out firſt to attempt the paſſage. When they had got half way, amid a torrent of aſhes, which the impreſſion of their feet made to roll down along with them, they found means to fix themſelves on the edge of a precipice twelve feet in height, which it was neceſſary to paſs before they could reach the lower declivity. The lazzaroni, frightened, refuſed to proceed; but, being promiſed a double ducat, avarice got the better of his timidity; he ſpeedily made the ſign of the croſs over his whole body, and having invoked the Madonna, and St. Anthony of Padua, threw himſelf along with C. Debeer to the bottom of the firſt precipice: ſoon after they arrived at another, but being of leſs height it was paſſed with more eaſe. At length, amid a continual torrent of falling lava, aſhes, and ſtones, they arrived at the bottom of the crater, and ſtretched out their arms to us, ſending forth ſhouts of joy, which we returned with the utmoſt ſatisfaction and enthuſiaſm.

C. Houdouart, engineer, immediately followed C. Debeer; and after encountering the ſame difficulties, and paſſing dangerous precipices, joined him at the bottom of the crater. Being there both convinced of the almoſt inſurmountable difficulty of aſcending, they threw themſelves into each other's arms, like two friends reduced to the neceſſity of terminating their lives together in a deſert iſland without any hopes of eſcaping from it.

They then began, but with cautious ſteps, to walk round this immenſe furnace, which ſtill ſmokes in ſeveral places. The intrepid Wickar, who was very deſirous to participate in their fate, called out to them to ſend ſome one to aſſiſt him in paſſing the two cliffs; but ſeeing no one coming, and growing impatient, he ruſhed forward, and rolled down toward them amid a torrent of ſtones, aſhes, and volcanic matters. Adjutant Dampierre, C. Bagneris, phyſician to the army, Freſſinet and Andras, French travellers, and Moulin, inſpector of poſts, ſoon followed, and arrived at the crater after having incurred the ſame dangers.

Wickar immediately ſat down on a heap of ſcoriæ, and, with that ſuperiority of talents for which he is diſtinguiſhed, ſketched out in profile, with a perfect reſemblance, the portraits of the eight Frenchmen who had deſcended. Each then formed a ſmall collection of the different volcanic matters which appeared to be new or curious, and endeavoured to make a few obſervations.

Had we been allowed to depend on ſucceſs, had we not been retarded in our preparations by our timid guides, and if ſome of us, having only juſt arrived at Naples, had not been ſtraitened in point of time, our deſcent would certainly have been much more uſeful, and the reſults more ſatisfactory. However, though ill furniſhed with means, the following are the obſervations we were enabled to make:

Reaumur's thermometer, the only inſtrument we poſſeſſed, ſtood at twelve degrees, on the ſummit of Veſuvius: the air was cold, and ſomewhat moiſt: in the crater the quickſilver roſe to ſixteen degrees, and we experienced the mildeſt temperature.

The ſurface of this place, which, when ſeen by the naked eye, looking

down from above, appeared entirely ſmooth, exhibited, when we were at the bottom, nothing but a vaſt extent of aſperities. We were conſtantly obliged to paſs over lava exceedingly porous, in general pretty hard, but which in ſome places, and particularly thoſe where we entered, was ſtill ſoft, and yielded under our feet. The ſpectacle which ſtruck us moſt was the numerous ſpiracles, which either at the bottom of the crater or the interior ſides of the mountain ſuffers the vapours to eſcape. When we arrived at the crater, we were deſirous to aſcertain whether theſe vapours were of a noxious quality: we walked through them, and inſpired them ſeveral times, but felt no inconvenience from them. The thermometer placed in one of theſe ſpiracles indicated fifty-four degrees, in another it roſe only to twenty-two. In all theſe experiments our inſtrument was covered with a humid matter, which was ſoon diſſipated in the open air without leaving any traces.

In traverſing the ſurface of the crater, we perceived a focus half covered by a large maſs of pumice ſtone, and which, from its whole circumference, emitted a ſtrong heat. The thermometer placed at firſt at the entrance of it, and then immerſed to as great a depth as the nature of the ground and the heat would admit, never roſe higher than twenty-two degrees. This ſingularity ſurpriſed us, but we were not able to explain it.

The volcanic productions which we obſerved in the whole crater were lava, exceedingly porous, and which the fire in certain places had reduced to ſcoriæ. It was of a dark brown colour, and ſometimes reddiſh, but it is rare to find any white. The ſubſtances neareſt the ſpiracles are all covered or impregnated with ſulphur. This mineral is found very often in a ſtate of oxygenation. It is ſometimes white, and ſometimes of a yellowiſh colour, and the ſharp and pungent impreſſion it leaves on the tongue ſufficiently indicates the ſtate in which it is. The burning focus, of which we have ſpoken, produces the ſame reſults. Some baſaltic lava is alſo found, but in ſmall quantity; one ſpecimen only, of a conſiderable weight and beautiful poliſh, attracted our attention.

On the north ſide of the crater there are two large fiſſures, one of which is twenty feet in depth, and the other about fifteen. They are ſhaped like an inverted cone. The matter with which they are covered is entirely ſimilar to that on the reſt of the ſurface. They emit neither ſmoke nor heat; yet ſome ſulphurous productions plainly ſhow that the fire in theſe places has not long been extinct.

When we had finiſhed theſe few obſervations, it was neceſſary that we ſhould think of returning. The deſcent is far leſs laborious than the aſcent; for it is difficult to climb eminences where the points of ſupport are ſo moveable. Beſides, people cannot aſcend but one at a time in ſucceſſion, after long intervals, for fear of burying under a torrent of volcanic matters thoſe who follow, as the foot, when moved, diſplaces the aſhes, &c. to the diſtance of thirty feet round.

When we arrived at the two precipices, we were obliged to aſcend by mounting on the ſhoulders of a man placed at the bottom, and laying hold of a ſtick held by another at the top, and to reſt our feet no where but in a very gentle manner. At length, by prudence and caution, we reached the ſummit of Veſuvius without any accident, but exhauſted with fatigue, and ſo covered with aſhes and ſmoke, as to be ſcarcely diſtinguiſhable. Our ſix companions, who had not deſcended into the crater, were overjoyed when they ſaw us again, and ſupplied us with ſome refreſhments, of which we had great need.

When one grand difficulty is ſurmounted, inferior ones are overlooked, as of little importance. In leſs than twenty-five minutes we again deſcended, having confirmed, after examining various ſtones, this ob-

ſervation, that Veſuvius is the only known volcano which throws up from its bowels primordial ſubſtances, without being altered by the fire, and ſuch as are found at preſent in banks and veins.

At half after eight in the morning, we arrived at Portici, the inhabitants of which were much ſurpriſed to ſee us return, all ſafe. Their delicious fruits, and their excellent wine called *lacryma Chriſti*, ſoon made us forget our fatigue, and we then proceeded to Naples, which we reached in ſafety.

The reſult of this excurſion, which was only an experiment, can be of no further uſe than to ſhow the poſſibility of reaching the crater, and to open the way to it to philoſophers, naturaliſts, and chymiſts, who, by exploring this immenſe furnace of nature at their leiſure, will find a variety of matters which will afford ample field for the application of their chymical knowledge, and may enable them to make diſcoveries intereſting to the arts and the ſciences.

The names of the eight Frenchmen, in the order in which they deſcended, are as follow: Debeer, ſecretary to the ambaſſador Alquier; Houdouart, chief engineer of bridges and cauſeways attached to the army of Italy; Wickar, painter; Dampierre, adjutant-commandant; Bagneris, phyſician to the army of obſervation; Freſſinet and Andras, French travellers; and Moulin, inſpector of poſts.

The HISTORY *of* KNOWLEDGE, LEARNING, *and* TASTE, *in* Great Britain, *during the Reign of King* CHARLES II. *Concluded from Page* 335.

EDMUND WALLER was born in Herefordſhire, 1605. His father was Robert Waller, eſq. and his mother daughter of John Hampden, and ſiſter to the celebrated patriot of that name. His father died while an infant, and left him a yearly income of 3,500l. He was educated at Eton, and removed afterward to Cambridge. Waller's political and poetical life began nearly together. He was ſent to parliament in his eighteenth year, and at the ſame time wrote the poem which appears firſt in his works, On the Prince's Eſcape at St. Andero; a piece which juſtifies the obſervation made by one of his editors, 'that he attained, by a felicity like inſtinct, a ſtyle which will never be obſolete: and were we to judge only by the wording, we could not know what was wrote at twenty, and what at fourſcore.' By the peruſal of Fairfax's tranſlation of Taſſo, (to which he confeſſes himſelf indebted for the ſmoothneſs of his numbers) and by his own nicety of obſervation, he had then formed ſuch a ſyſtem of metrical harmony as he never afterward much needed, or endeavoured to improve. Denham corrected his numbers by experience, and gained ground upon the ruggedneſs of the age; but what was acquired by Denham was inherited by Waller.

Waller was not one of thoſe idolaters of fame who cultivate their minds at the expence of their fortunes: rich as he was by birth, he took care early to grow richer by marrying Mrs. Banks, a great heireſs in the city. At her death, which was ſoon, he fixed his heart ambitiouſly on the lady Dorothea Sidney, daughter of the earl of Leiceſter, whom he courted by all the poetry in which Sachariſſa is celebrated. This high-born dame afforded wit no opportunity of boaſting its influence; unſubdued by his verſe, ſhe rejected his addreſſes with diſdain. When he had loſt all hopes, he looked round for an eaſier conqueſt, and gained a lady of the family of Breſſe, of whom nothing is recorded but that ſhe brought him many children. His uncommon qualifications recommended him to the moſt illuſtrious ſcholars and ſtateſmen; and

during the long interval of parliament he is repreſented as living among thoſe with whom it was moſt honourable to converſe, and enjoying an exuberant fortune with that independence and liberty of ſpeech which wealth ought always to produce. He was conſidered however as the kinſman of Hampden, and therefore ſuppoſed by the courtiers not to favour them.

When the parliament was called in 1640, it appeared that Waller's political character had not been much miſtaken: the king's demand of a ſupply produced one of thoſe noiſy ſpeeches which diſaffection and diſcontent regularly dictate; a ſpeech filled with hyperbolical complaints of imaginary grievances. He then proceeded to rail at the clergy, being ſure, at that time, of a favourable audience. His topic is ſuch as will always ſerve its purpoſe—an accuſation of preaching only for preferment; and he exhorts the commons to provide for their protection *againſt pulpit law*.

The ſpeech is vehement; but the great poſition, that grievances ought to be redreſſed before ſupplies are granted, is agreeable enough to law and reaſon: nor was Waller ſuch an enemy to the king as not to wiſh his diſtreſſes lightened.

In the long parliament, Waller was conſidered as a man ſufficiently truſty and acrimonious, by the diſcontented party, to be employed in managing the proſecution of judge Crawley, for his opinion in favour of ſhip-money; and he did not diſappoint their expectations. He was not, however, a bigot to his party, nor did he adopt all their opinions. When the great queſtion, whether *epiſcopacy ought to be aboliſhed?* was debated, he ſpoke againſt the innovation ſo coolly, ſo reaſonably, and ſo firmly, that it is not without great injury to his name that his ſpeech was omitted in his works; and it is much to be lamented, that he who could plead in ſo able a manner in a right cauſe had not acted throughout with ſpirit and uniformity.

The engagement, known by the name of Waller's plot, was ſoon afterward diſcovered. Waller had a brother-in-law, Tomkins, who was clerk of the queen's council; and at the ſame time had great influence in the city. Waller and he, converſing with great confidence, told their own ſecrets, and thoſe of their friends; and, ſurveying the wide extent of their acquaintance, imagined they had found, in the majority of all ranks, great diſapprobation of the violence of the commons, and unwillingneſs to continue the war. They knew that many favoured the king, whoſe fear concealed their loyalty; and many deſired peace, though they durſt not oppoſe the clamour; and they ſuppoſed, that if theſe could be informed of their own ſtrength, and enabled to act together, they might overpower the fury of ſedition, refuſe the taxes levied for the rebel army, and, by uniting in a petition for peace, reſtore the king, and ſave the country.

Lord Conway joined in their deſign, which chiefly was, to bring the loyal inhabitants to the knowledge of each other. It is the opinion of Clarendon, that no violence or ſanguinary reſiſtance was intended—only to abate the confidence of the rebels by public declarations, and to weaken their power by an oppoſition to new ſupplies. About this time another plot was formed by ſir Nicholas Criſpe, a man whoſe loyalty has tranſmitted his name to poſterity:—flattering himſelf that ſome opportunity would encourage the king's friends to break out in open reſiſtance to the commons, and then would only want a lawful ſtandard, and authoriſed commanders, he extorted from the king a commiſſion of array, directed to ſuch as he thought proper to nominate. This commiſſion, which could only be intended to lie ready till the occaſion ſhould require it, was an act preparatory to hoſtility; and Criſpe would undoubtedly have put an end to the ſeſſion of parliament, had his ſtrength been equal to his zeal. Out of the deſign of Criſpe, and that

of Waller, which was an act purely civil, the commons compounded a horrid and dreadful plot: guards were ſent to apprehend Tomkins and Waller, the laſt of whom was ſo confounded with fear, that he confeſſed whatever he had heard, ſeen, ſaid, or thought; all that he knew of himſelf, and all that he ſuſpected of others, without concealing any perſon, of any degree or quality whatſoever, or any diſcourſe which he had upon any occaſion entertained with them. He accuſed the earl of Portland and lord Conway as co-operating in the tranſaction; and teſtified that the earl of Northumberland had declared himſelf favourable to any attempt which might check the violence of the parliament, and reconcile them to the king. Tomkins partook of his cowardice, for he gave notice of Criſpe's commiſſion of array; and Pym was ſent to tell the citizens of their happy eſcape. Their deſign was, to ſeize the lord-mayor and all the committee of militia, and deliver the parliament and city into the hands of the cavaliers. Waller immerſed himſelf ſtill deeper in ignominy. The earl of Portland and lord Conway denied the charge; and there was no evidence againſt them but the confeſſion of Waller, who endeavoured to perſuade Portland to a declaration like his own; but it had little effect upon his ſtronger mind; and the lords ordered them to be confronted together, when the one repeated his charge, and the other his denial; and no teſtimony but Waller's appearing, Portland and Conway were admitted, after a long impriſonment, to bail. The earl of Northumberland was too great for proſecution; and Tomkins was hanged near his own door. Waller, though confeſſedly the moſt guilty, with incredible diſſimulation, (ſays Clarendon) affected ſuch remorſe, that his trial was put off out of Chriſtian compaſſion, till he might recover his underſtanding. What uſe he made of this interval, with what liberality and ſucceſs he diſtributed flattery and money, and how he confeſſed and lamented when he was brought before the houſe, may be read in the Hiſtory of the Rebellion, b. vii. The ſpeech to which Clarendon aſcribes the preſervation of his *dear-bought life* is inſerted in his works. After a year's impriſonment, in which time reſentment grew leſs acrimonious, by paying a fine of 10,000l, he was permitted to *recollect himſelf in another country*.

Of his behaviour, in this part of life, it is not neceſſary to direct an opinion. 'Let us not,' ſays his ingenious biographer, 'condemn him with untempered ſeverity, becauſe he was not a prodigy which the world hath ſeldom ſeen; becauſe his character included not the poet, the orator, and the hero.' He choſe France for the place of his exile, and lived with great ſplendor and hoſpitality at Paris; amuſing himſelf with poetry, in which he ſpeaks of rebels (of whom he had ſo obſequiouſly begged his life) with the vehemence of a loyaliſt.

Of Cromwell, now protector, he ſolicited permiſſion to return to England; and obtained it through the intereſt of his ſiſter, married to colonel Scroop. Cromwell received him as his kinſman, and he repaid his favour by the famous panegyric which has always been conſidered as the firſt of his poetical productions. His choice of encomiaſtic topics is very judicious; for he regards Cromwell, in his exaltation, without inquiring how he attained it; conſequently there is no mention of the rebel or the regicide; nothing is brought to view but 'the defender of England's glory, and the enlarger of her dominion.' The poem on his death ſeems to have been dictated by real veneration for his memory.

Soon afterward the reſtoration ſupplied him with another ſubject; and he exerted his imagination, his elegance, and his melody, with equal alacrity for Charles II. It is not poſſible to read, without indignation and contempt, poems of the ſame author, aſcribing the higheſt degree of

power and piety to Charles I; then transferring the *ſame power and piety* to Oliver Cromwell; now inviting Oliver to take the crown, and then congratulating Charles II, on recovering his right. Neither could value his teſtimony as the effect of conviction, or receive his praiſes as the effuſions of reverence; they could conſider them but as the labour of invention, and the tribute of dependence.

Poets indeed prefer fiction; but the legitimate end of fiction is the conſequence of truth; and he that has flattery ready for all whom the viciſſitudes of the world happen to exalt, muſt be ſcorned as a proſtituted mind, which may retain the glitter of wit, but has loſt the dignity of virtue.

The account of Waller's parliamentary eloquence is atteſted by Burnet, who calls him 'the delight of the houſe;' but adds, 'he was only concerned to ſay (that which ſhould make him be applauded) he never laid the buſineſs of the houſe to heart, being a vain and empty, though a witty man.' Clarendon, to whom he was familiarly known, records, 'that he appeared in theſe aſſemblies with great advantage, having a graceful way of ſpeaking; and, by thinking much on ſeveral arguments, he ſeemed to ſpeak upon the ſudden, when the occaſion had only adminiſtered the opportunity, which gave a high luſtre to what he ſaid, which yet was rather of delight than weight.'—There needs no more be ſaid to extol the excellence and power of his wit, and pleaſantneſs of his converſation, than that it was of magnitude enough to cover a world of very great faults; that is, ſo to cover them, that they were not taken notice of to his reproach, viz. a narrowneſs in his nature to the loweſt degree; an abjectneſs and want of courage to ſupport him in any virtuous undertaking; an inſinuation and ſervile flattery to the height: that it preſerved and won his life from thoſe who were moſt reſolved to take it, and on an occaſion in which he ought to have been ambitious to have loſt it; and then preſerved him again from the contempt which was due to him in ſo preſerving it, and vindicating it at ſuch a price, that it had power to reconcile him to thoſe whom he had moſt offended; and continued to his age, with that rare felicity, that his company was acceptable where his ſpirit was odious; and he was pitied even where he was moſt deteſted.

At the acceſſion of king James he was choſen a member of parliament, being then fourſcore, and treated by his majeſty with kindneſs and familiarity.

Having now attained an age beyond which the laws of nature ſeldom ſuffer life to be extended, otherwiſe than by a future ſtate, he ſeemed to have turned his mind on preparations for the deciſive hour, and conſecrated his poetry to devotion. It is pleaſing to diſcover that his piety was without weakneſs, and that the lines which he compoſed when

'He for age could neither ſee nor write,'

are not inferior to the effuſions of his youth.

As his diſeaſe increaſed upon him, he compoſed himſelf for his departure; and calling upon Dr. Birch to give him the holy ſacrament, he deſired his children to take it with him, and made an earneſt declaration in favour of Chriſtianity. He died in 1687, and was buried at Beaconsfield.

The general character of his poetry is elegance and gayety; he is never pathetic, and very rarely ſublime. He ſeems neither to have had a mind much elevated by nature, nor amplified by learning; his thoughts are ſuch as a liberal converſation, and large acquaintance with life, would eaſily ſupply; they had, however, then that grace of novelty which they are now ſuppoſed to want, by thoſe who, having found them in later books, do not inquire who produced them firſt.

Of his airy and light productions, the chief ſource is gallantry; that attentive reverence of female excellence which has deſcended to us from the

Gothic ages. As his poems are commonly occaſional, and his addreſſes perſonal, he was not ſo liberally furniſhed with grand as with ſoft images; for beauty is more eaſily found than magnanimity. The delicacy which he cultivated reſtrains him to a certain nicety and caution, even when he writes on the ſlighteſt matter. He has nothing burleſque, and ſeldom any thing ludicrous. He ſeems always to do his beſt, though his ſubjects are not worth his care. Little things are made too important, and the empire of beauty is repreſented as exerting its influence further than can be allowed by the multiplicity of human paſſions, and the variety of human wants.

He ſeldom brings an amorous ſentence from the depths of ſcience; his thoughts are eaſily underſtood; and he has a juſt claim to popularity, becauſe he writes to common degrees of knowledge.

Among his little poems, are ſome which their excellence ought to ſecure from oblivion: as that to Amoret, comparing the different modes of regard with which he looks on her and Sachariſſa, and the Verſes on Love, beginning

'Anger in haſty words or blows.'

Of *the full reſounding line* he has given few examples; critical deciſion has allotted the praiſe of ſtrength to Denham, and ſweetneſs to Waller. His harmony of verſification has ſome abatement: he uſes the expletive *do* very frequently; and, though he lived to ſee it almoſt univerſally rejected, was not more careful to avoid it in his laſt compoſitions than his firſt. Reputation had given him confidence; and finding the world ſatisfied with his productions, he ſatisfied himſelf. His rhymes are ſometimes weak words: *ſo*, makes the rhyme twice in ten lines, and occurs often through the book.

Of his nobler and more weighty performances, the greater part is panegyric; for of praiſe he was very laviſh: his verſes upon Cromwell have obtained their juſt ſhare of commendation. Such a ſeries of lines had then rarely appeared in the Engliſh language. Some are grand, others graceful; all are muſical.

His ſacred poems do not pleaſe like ſome of his other works; but before the fatal fifty five, when his political conduct ſo much diſhonoured his literary powers, had he written on the ſame ſubjects, his ſucceſs would hardly have been better.

But of the praiſe of Waller, though much may be taken away, much will remain; he added ſomething to our elegance of diction, and ſomething to our propriety of thought. His opinion concerning the duty of a poet is contained in his declaration, that 'he would blot from his works any line that did not contain ſome motive to virtue.' And to him may be applied what Taſſo ſaid of himſelf and Guarini, after having peruſed the Paſtor Fido—'If he had not read Aminta, he had not excelled it.'

Of Thomas Otway, one of the firſt names in the Engliſh drama, little is known. He was the ſon of a clergyman, and born in Suſſex, 1651. From Wincheſter ſchool, where he was educated, he was entered a commoner of Chriſt-church, 1669; but left the univerſity without a degree; whether for want of money, or impatience of academical reſtraint, is not known.

At London he commenced player, but was unable to gain any reputation on the ſtage. But unſucceſsful in this line, he felt in himſelf powers which qualified him for a dramatic author; and, in his twenty-fifth year, he produced Alcibiades. He afterward publiſhed Titus and Berenice, from Rapin; the Cheats of Scapin, from Moliere; and Friendſhip in Faſhion, a comedy, which, whatever might be its firſt reception, was, upon its revival at Drury-lane, hiſſed off the ſtage for its immorality.

Want of morals or decency, did not, in thoſe days, exclude any man from the ſociety of the opulent and the great, if he brought with him any powers of entertainment; and Otway

is ſaid to have been a favourite in the circle of the wits. But as he who deſires no virtue in his companion, has no virtue himſelf, thoſe with whom Otway aſſociated had no intention of ſerving him further than by paying the reckoning: their kindneſs was without benevolence, and their familiarity without friendſhip. 'The great, at that time, allowed no favour to men of genius, but to ſhare their riots, from which they diſmiſſed them again to their own narrow circumſtances: thus they languiſhed in indigence without the ſupport of eminence.'

The earl of Plymouth, however, procured for Otway a cornet's commiſſion in ſome troops ſent into Flanders; but he did not proſper in his military character, for he ſoon left his commiſſion behind him, whatever was the reaſon, and came back to London in extreme want. His play of Don Carlos appears to have had uncommon ſucceſs, and from which he is repreſented to have received great benefit. The Orphan was exhibited in 1680. This yet keeps poſſeſſion of the ſtage, and has pleaſed for a century, through all the viciſſitudes of dramatic faſhion: it is a domeſtic tragedy, drawn from middle life: its whole power is upon the affections; for it is not written with much comprehenſion of thought, or elegance of expreſſion; but, if the heart be intereſted, many other beauties may be wanting, and not miſſed. The next year produced the Fall of Caius Marius, much of which is borrowed from the Romeo and Juliet of Shakſpeare.

His laſt and greateſt work is Venice Preſerved; ſtill a favourite of the public, notwithſtanding the want of morality in the deſign, and the deſpicable ſcenes of low comedy with which he has diverſified his tragic action. By comparing this with his Orphan, it will appear that his images were become ſtronger, and his language more energetic. The ſtriking paſſages are univerſally known; and the public judges rightly of its faults and excellences, that it is the compoſition of a man not attentive to decency, nor zealous for virtue, but one who conceived forcibly, and drew originally, by conſulting nature in his own breaſt.

He alſo wrote poems which are in the late collection, and tranſlated from the French the Hiſtory of the Triumvirate.

All theſe were produced before he was thirty-four years old. He died in a manner painful to relate. Having been compelled by his neceſſities to contract debts, and hunted by bailiffs, he retired to a public-houſe on Tower Hill: he went out (ſays his biographer) almoſt naked, in the rage of hunger, and finding a gentleman in a coffee-houſe, aſked him for a ſhilling; the gentleman gave him a guinea; and Otway going away, bought a roll, and was choaked with the firſt mouthful.

The principal power of Otway was in moving the paſſions: he appears to have been a zealous royaliſt, and received what, in thoſe times, was the common reward of loyalty—he lived and died neglected.

Mrs. Catharine Phillips, known by the name of the 'Matchleſs Orinda,' was much and deſervedly eſteemed for her poetical talents, and was unrivalled by the female wits of her time. Her poems are more admired for propriety and beauty of thought than harmony of verſification, in which ſhe was generally deficient.

She tranſlated the Pompey and Horace of Corneille. Her Letters to ſir Charles Cotterell are among the beſt of her works.

The comedies of Wycherly were in great reputation, and were conformable to his perſonal character, which conſiſted of little virtue, much wit, and more libertiniſm. Theſe, in the reign of Charles, were the firſt qualifications of a fine gentleman, and the ſtrongeſt recommendation to the favour of the court. At the ſame time

Killigrew, ſir George Etheridge, and other play-wrights, publiſhed works well adapted to the licentiouſneſs of the court, and the prevailing manners of the age.

The marquis of Newcaſtle, in conſequence of his rank rather than his merit, was celebrated among the poets. His writings, conſiſting of plays and poems, are now little regarded; but his book on horſemanſhip is yet held in eſteem.

Payne Fiſher, poet laureat to Cromwell, was a copious and not inelegant writer of Latin verſe: he flouriſhed before and after the reſtoration. This character by Strada is exactly applicable to him.

'Nullius hodie mortalium, aut naſcitur, aut moritur, aut præliatur, aut ruſticatur, aut abiit peregre, aut rediit, aut eſt, aut non eſt, (nam etiam mortuis iſte canit) cui non extemplo credat Epicedia, Genethliaca, Proterptica nænias nugas.' (See a catalogue of his works, Athenæ Oxonienſis.)

Thomas May was a diſtinguiſhed poet and hiſtorian, and Johnſon has pronounced his Latin performances to be ſuperior to thoſe of Cowley or Milton*.

* Hume, Macauley, Wood's Athen. Ox. Johnſon's Lives, Biograph. Britan. Grainger, Biographical Dictionary, &c. &c.

A REVERIE.

By a Lady.

Adapted to the Concluſion of the Year.

I DO not much love the tribe of dreaming writers. There is ſomething very unnatural in ſuppoſing ſuch productions of underſtanding, ſuch a regular ſeries of ideas, generally abſtruſe and allegorical enough to put the comprehenſion of a waking reader upon the ſtretch, to be the effects of wild imagination, at thoſe hours when ſhe is moſt unaſſiſted by reaſon and memory. Yet it is pity a lively fancy ſhould be balked, and confined to the dull road of eſſay-writing, merely to avoid ſuch a trifling abſurdity in the phraſe. It might certainly be changed with great propriety into that of a *reverie*, which, by people that indulge their imaginations, is often carried on a very conſiderable time, with as gay a variety of circumſtances, and as lively colouring, as the poppy-dipt pencil of Morpheus could ever produce. Be it allowed me then to ſay, that one afternoon laſt ſummer, I fell into a deep reverie, lulled by the whiſpering of groves, the ſoft deſcent of a refreſhing ſhower, and the muſical repetitions of a thruſh. The air around me was perfumed with jeſſamins and woodbines, and I found myſelf perfectly in a poetical ſituation. The volume I had in my hand ſhould of right, to be ſure, have been Ovid or Petrarch, but it was Sunday, and the genteel reader muſt excuſe me, if I own that it contained the book of Eccleſiaſtes.

The ſoothing ſcene about me had at length ſuſpended my reading; but my thoughts were ſtill filled with many beautiful images of the nothingneſs, and vanity of human life. There is ſomething ſo bounded, and ſo ſhadowy in our exiſtence, that the celeſtial beam of underſtanding, which ſhows us what it is, muſt give us almoſt a diſguſt of life itſelf, were not our affections attached to it by ſo many tender ties, as call back our proud thoughts every moment. Moſt miſerable ſtate, continued I, in a melancholy ſoliloquy, what wretchedneſſes are we converſant in, to what mean objects are we bound down, how little a way can we comprehend, through what a wild of errors lies the narrow path of truth! narrow and long! Long? Why then it is not methinks ſo ſtrange, that one ſhould not ſtep to the end of it at once.

Well, ſuffice it that our progreſs be gradual. But what a thick dark hedge is here on either ſide. How much pleaſanter would it be to break through it, and view the fair varieties of the univerſe as we paſs along. Suppoſe it quite away.—In the midſt of this vaſt trackleſs plain, how will you now diſtinguiſh your path?—This brink of a precipice that you are to paſs along, does not your head turn at it? Do you not wiſh again for your ſafe boundary?—Well, but here the path is ſafe and open.—Amuſe yourſelf, look around you.—I do not like my own path. Yonder is one much fairer, paſſing over a much nobler eminence. I like my own path leſs than ever. I do not yet ſee far enough.—O thou ſpirit of diſorder and confuſion, canſt thou not be contented to move in the way allotted thee? Deviate then into ruin. Many a winding walk preſents itſelf on each hand. Art thou willing to venture?—No, let us purſue this ſafer, vulgar path. Muſt we have dirt and cloudy weather too?—You muſt. It belongs to this portion of the univerſe. The rain that diſpleaſes you here, is nouriſhing ſweet herbs and delicious fruits, that will refreſh you few furlongs hence. Behold now the advantage of thoſe deſpicable things you are hedged in with. Theſe thorns that ſometimes pull you back, are often crowned with gay and frequent bloſſoms, to make the tedious journey ſeem leſs irkſome. Thoſe thick trees, that bar your wandering view, are dreſt in a ſoft verdure that relieves your eye, and enables it ſometimes to take a better glimpſe through the branches, on objects that it could not dwell upon, till it becomes ſtronger.

Beneath a cypreſs lay a gloomy philoſopher, who called out in a diſmal tone, whoever you are, fooliſh paſſengers, know your own miſery. It is impoſſible to have any rational enjoyment, in this your deſpicable ſtate. Baniſh the thought of comfort. You are a parcel of wretches, to be happy is none of your buſineſs, to be cheerful is an abſurdity. Theſe bloſſoms are tranſient as the ſpring, thoſe vile fruits you gather as you paſs along, ought not to detain your attention one moment from thoſe gems that glitter on your heads, which are your only real treaſure. Thoſe wretched fruits, what are they? They are what ſupport us from one ſtage to another, ſaid a plain man, who paſſed by, and our ſtock of gems is gradually increaſing, if we keep ſteadily in the right path, and gently and patiently remove the thorns and briars that moleſt us, as we move toward the country of diamonds.

Immediately my reverie tranſported me into a fair. Long ſtreets of booths croſſing each other, at right angles, formed very regular ſquares, of which ſome were handſome, and ſome very ugly, from the different ſtructures of the booths. Several market-women were carrying away bundles and baſkets, marked with the names of the various proprietors. I met a hag of a very untoward look, bent almoſt double with the weight of years, her brow wrinkled, and her complexion weather-beaten. The ſight of her diſpleaſed me, but ſhe was not to be avoided. Here, ſaid ſhe, offering me a filthy baſket, covered at the top with thorns. Take your purchaſe, ſaid I, ſtepping back: nay, ſaid ſhe, e'en take it; and flung it at my head. But as ſhe turned away, a ſmile, that began to brighten on her ſolemn face, diſcovered to me that ſhe was the good fairy *Experience*. I ſat down with the encouragement this diſcovery gave me, and began to examine her baſket. The thorns it was covered with, coſt me a good deal of time to diſentangle, and take them out with ſafety to my fingers, but I recollected them diſtinctly, every one to be ſuch as had perplexed me and torn my clothes, as I paſſed along the narrow path, and which one by one I had gently broken off the boughs, while I purſured my journey. Theſe were the very individual thorns and briars, and while I

was wondering how they ſhould come to be ſo collected, I came to the bottom, where I found a row of ineſtimable pearls, equal in number to the briars, large, even, round, and of an exquiſite poliſh. Beſide them lay a ſcrap of paper, with theſe words written on it:

'Philoſophy and evenneſs of temper are pearls, which we purchaſe at the price of thoſe vexations and croſſes in life, that occur to us every day. Nothing in this world is to be had for nothing. Every difficulty we ſurmount is the purchaſe of ſome advantage. Go through the fair, and ſee.'

I perceived a good genius ſtanding near me, and deſired him to be my Cicerone. We went through the booths, and examined the purchaſes. Here the coin paid down for health and eaſe, and freedom from perplexity, was ſtamped with care and prudence. There, the copper-money of mere plodding perſeverance was the price of wealth, honour, learning, and accompliſhments. In one place there was a ſort of Monmouth-ſtreet, where people were bartering old bad habits for new ones, every way more becoming, but ſeemed to think their bargains very hard, and the very article of fitting them on, occaſioned ſuch a variety of wry faces, as would have given great diverſion to a groteſque painter. It was a melancholy amuſement to ſee how people miſtook in the value of things, how often they paſſed by, with a ſlighting air, thoſe goods which at firſt they might have had for a trifle, and never knew the worth of them, till they were engaged to other bidders, or the price raiſed very high, or themſelves perhaps gone ſo far off before they took the fancy of returning, that they could not find their way back without a guide; and in the whole place there was but one guide to be met with, and ſhe of ſo forbidding an aſpect, and ſo diſagreeable a converſation, as made her a very undeſirable companion. She ſeverely reproved their folly, and obliged them to throw away the bargains, on which they had moſt ſet their heart, and then led them back to the fair, by a rough, round-about way, to buy thoſe they had formerly ſlighted. By the time they had got there, ſhe began to wear a gentler aſpect, and they found ſo much advantage in the change of their purchaſes, that notwithſtanding all her rude treatment, they acknowledged *repentance* as a very uſeful friend.

Leiſure, I found, was a metal that proved more or leſs valuable according to the image ſtamped upon it, and as I ſaw what admirable curioſities it purchaſed in the hands of good managers, I was quite provoked to ſee what quantities of it were flung away: but this was nothing. I ſaw many fine people throw away handfuls of diamonds, that they might have their fingers at liberty to catch butterflies.

In ſome parts of the fair, every body ſeemed to be playing at croſs purpoſes. The moſt valuable gems were ſquandered away for trifles, which yet they could not purchaſe, and trifles offered for jewels of the higheſt price. I ſaw my friend Foſco, the antiquary, among a multitude of the ſame claſs, who bought ſuch a quantity of time and induſtry, as would have purchaſed any thing in the whole place, and poured it out before a cabinet of copper coins, which, ſtill, after all, wanted one or two of being perfect. I ſaw others of gayer appearance buy a ſhadow, a flower, a feather, at a ſtill higher price.—At laſt, to my infinite vexation, a leſs ſhadowy figure ſtood before me, and a ſummons to attend ſome viſitors that were juſt alighted, put an end to my reverie.

ACCOUNT OF THE BITUMINOUS LAKE IN TRINIDAD.

THIS iſland, which with Ceylon, forms the chief of thoſe poſſeſſions we are to retain by the peace, is but little known in this country. Of Ceylon, our readers will find a very correct account in our Magazine for the months of January and February, 1796. So much information we have not been able to procure reſpecting Trinidad, yet the following particulars will be found authentic, and the deſcription of the bituminous lake is very curious.

Trinidad is an iſland in the gulph of Mexico, ſeparated from New Andaluſia, in Terra Firma, by a ſtrait about three miles over. It is about thirty leagues long, and from two to ten broad. The climate is ſaid to be unwholeſome, the iſland being very often covered with thick fogs. The quality of its ſoil is variouſly reported: however, ſir Walter Raliegh, who was there ſome time in the year 1593, and examined the iſland, gives an account that the northern part is high land, but that its ſoil is good, proper for planting of ſugar canes, tobacco, &c. Here are ſeveral ſorts of animals, plenty of wild hogs, fiſh, fowl, and fruit. It alſo produces maize, caſſava, and other roots; and in general, all that is commonly found in America. The Spaniards owned to ſir Walter, that they found gold in the rivers of this iſland, but nothing in compariſon of what the main land produced. The firſt diſcoverer was Columbus, in 1498. It was taken by the French in 1676, who plundered the iſland and then left it, and by the Engliſh in the preſent war, by whom it is to be retained.

A moſt remarkable production of nature in the iſland of Trinidad, is a bituminous lake, or rather plain, known by the name of *Tar Lake*; by the French called La Bray, from the reſemblance to, and anſwering the intention of ſhip-pitch. It lies in the leeward ſide of the iſland, about half way from the Bocas to the ſouth end, where the mangrove ſwamps are interrupted by the ſand-banks and hills, and on a point of land which extends into the ſea about two miles, exactly oppoſite to the high mountains of Paria, on the north ſide of the gulph.

This cape, or headland, is about 50 feet above the level of the ſea, and is the greateſt elevation of the land on this ſide of the iſland. From the ſea it appears a maſs of black vitrified rocks: but on a cloſe examination it is found a compoſition of bituminous ſcoriæ, vitrified ſand and earth, cemented together: in ſome parts beds of cinders only are found. In approaching this cape, there is a ſtrong ſulphureous ſmell, ſometimes diſagreeable. This ſmell is prevalent in many parts of the ground to the diſtance of eight or ten miles from it.

This point of land is about two miles broad, and on the eaſt and weſt ſides, from the diſtance of about half a mile from the ſea, falls with a gentle declivity to it, and is joined to the main land on the ſouth by the continuation of the mangrove ſwamps: ſo that the bituminous plain is on the higheſt part of it, and only ſeparated from the ſea by a margin of wood which ſurrounds it, and prevents a diſtant proſpect of it. Its ſituation is ſimilar to a ſavannah, and, like them, it is not ſeen till treading upon its verge. Its colour and even ſurface preſent at firſt the aſpect of a lake of water; but it is poſſible it got the appellation of *lake* when ſeen in the hot and dry weather, at which time its ſurface to the depth of an inch is liquid; and then from its coheſive quality it cannot be walked upon.

It is of a circular form, about three miles in circumference. At my firſt approach (ſays Mr. Anderſon, to whoſe account of this phenomenon we are now indebted) it appeared a plain, as ſmooth as glaſs, excepting ſome ſmall clumps of ſhrubs and dwarf trees that had taken poſſeſſion of ſome ſpots of it; but when I had proceeded ſome yards on it, I found it divided into *areolæ* of different ſizes and ſhapes;

the chaſms or diviſions communicated through every part of it; the ſurface of the little areas perfectly horizontal and ſmooth; the margins undulated, each undulation enlarged to the bottom till they join the oppoſite. On the ſurface, the margin or firſt undulation is diſtant from the oppoſite from four to ſix feet, and the ſame depth before they coaleſce: but where the angles of the areolæ oppoſe, the chaſms or ramifications are wider and deeper. When I was at it, all theſe chaſms were full of water, the whole forming one true horizontal plane, which rendered my inveſtigation of it difficult and tedious, being neceſſitated to plunge into the water a great depth in paſſing from one areola to another. The trueſt idea that can be formed of its ſurface will be from the areolæ and their ramifications on the back of a turtle. Its more common conſiſtence and appearance is that of pit-coal, the colour rather greyer. It breaks into ſmall fragments of a cellular appearance, and gloſſy, with a number of minute and ſhining particles interſperſed through its ſubſtance; it is very friable, and when liquid, is of a jet black colour. Some parts of the ſurface are covered with a thin and brittle ſcoria, a little elevated.

As to its depth, I can form no idea of it: for in no part could I find a ſubſtratum of any other ſubſtance: in ſome parts I found a calcined earth mixed with it.

Although I ſmelt ſulphur very ſtrong on paſſing over many parts of it, I could diſcover no appearance of it, or any rent or crack through which the ſteams might iſſue: probably it was from ſome parts of the adjacent woods: for although ſulphur is the baſis of this bituminous matter, yet the ſmells are very different, and eaſily diſtinguiſhed, for its ſmell comes the neareſt to that of pitch of any thing I know. I could make no impreſſion on its ſurface without an axe: at the depth of a foot I found it a little ſofter, with an oily appearance, in ſmall cells. A little of it held to a burning candle makes a hiſſing or crackling noiſe like nitre, emitting ſmall ſparks with a vivid flame, which extinguiſh the moment the candle is removed. A piece put in the fire will boil up a long time without ſuffering much diminution: after a long time's ſevere heat, the ſurface will burn and form a thin ſcoria, under which the reſt remains liquid. Heat ſeems not to render it fluid, or occupy a larger ſpace than when cold: from which, I imagine, there is but little alteration on it during the dry months, as the ſolar rays cannot exert their force above an inch below the ſurface. I was told by one Frenchman, that in the dry ſeaſon the whole was an uniform ſmooth maſs; and by another, that the ravins contained water fit for uſe during the year. But neither can I believe: for if, according to the firſt aſſertion, it was an homogenous maſs, ſomething more than an external cauſe muſt affect it to give it the preſent appearance; nor without ſome hidden cauſe can the ſecond be granted. Although the bottoms of theſe ramified channels admit not of abſorption, yet from their open expoſure, and the black ſurface of the circumjacent parts, evaporation muſt go on amazingly quick, and a ſhort time of dry weather muſt ſoon empty them: nor from the ſituation and ſtructure of the place is there a poſſibility of ſupply but from the clouds. To ſhow that the progreſs of evaporation is inconceivably quick here, at the time I viſited it, there were, on an average, two thirds of the time inceſſant torrents of rain; but from the afternoon being dry, with a gentle breeze (as is generally the caſe during the rainy ſeaſon in this iſland) there evidently was an equilibrium between the rain and the evaporation; for in the courſe of three days I ſaw it twice, and perceived no alteration on the height of the water, nor any outlet for it, but by evaporation.

I take this bituminous ſubſtance to be the *bitumen aſphaltum* of Linneus. A gentle heat renders it ductile; hence, mixed with a little greaſe or

common pitch, it is much uſed for the bottoms of ſhips, and for which intention it is collected by many; and I ſhould conceive it a preſervative againſt the borer, ſo deſtructive to ſhips in this part of the world.

Beſide this place, where it is found in this ſolid ſtate, it is found liquid in many parts of the woods; and at the diſtance of 20 miles from this, about two inches thick in round holes of three or four inches diameter, and often at cracks or rents. This is conſequently liquid, and ſmells ſtronger of tar than when indurated, and adheres ſtrongly to any thing it touches; greaſe is the only thing that will diveſt the hands of it.

The ſoil, in general, for ſome diſtance round La Bray, is cinders and burnt earths; and where not ſo, it is a ſtrong argillaceous ſoil; the whole exceedingly fertile, which is always the caſe where there are any ſulphureous particles in it. Every part of the country, to the diſtance of 30 miles round, has every appearance of being formed by convulſions of nature from ſubterraneous fires. In ſeveral parts of the woods are hot ſprings; ſome I tried, with a well-graduated thermometer of Farenheit, were 20° and 22° hotter than the atmoſphere at the time of trial. From its poſition to them, this part of the iſland has certainly experienced the effects of the volcanic eruptions, which have heaped up thoſe prodigious maſſes of mountains that terminate the province of Paria on the north; and no doubt there has been, and ſtill probably is, a communication between them. One of theſe mountain oppoſite to La Bray in Trinidad, about 30 miles diſtant, has every appearance of a volcanic mountain: however, the volcanic efforts have been very weak here, as no traces of them extend above two miles from the ſea in this part of the iſland, and the greater part of it has had its origin from a very different cauſe to that of volcanoes; but they have certainly laid the foundation of it, as is evident from the high ridge of mountains which ſurrounds its windward ſide to protect it from the depredations of the ocean, and is its only barrier againſt that overpowering element, and may properly be called the ſkeleton of the iſland.

From every examination I have made, I find the whole iſland formed of an argillaceous earth, either in its primitive ſtate or under its different metamorphoſes. The baſes of the mountains are compoſed of *ſchiſtus*, *argillaceous* and *talcum lithomargo*; but the plains or low-lands remaining nearly in the ſame moiſt ſtate as at its formation, the component particles have not experienced the viciſſitudes of nature ſo much as the more elevated parts, conſequently retain more of their primitive forms and properties. As argillaceous earth is formed from the ſediment of the ocean, from the ſituation of Trinidad to the continent its formation is eaſily accounted for, granting firſt the formation of the ridge of mountains that bound its windward ſide, and the high mountains on the continent that nearly join it: for the great influx of currents into the gulph of Paria from the coaſts of Brazil and Andaluſia muſt bring a vaſt quantity of light earthy particles from the mouth of the numerous large rivers which traverſe theſe parts of the continent: but the currents being repelled by theſe ridges of mountains, eddies and ſmooth water will be produced when they meet and oppoſe: and therefore the earthy particles would ſubſide, and form banks of mud, and by freſh accumulations added, would ſoon form dry land: and from theſe cauſes it is evident ſuch a tract of country as Trinidad muſt be formed. But theſe cauſes ſtill exiſt, and the effect from them is evident; for the iſland is daily growing on the leeward ſide, as may be ſeen from the mud-beds that extend a great way into the gulph, and there conſtantly increaſe. But from the great influx from the ocean at the ſouth end of the iſland, and its egreſs to the Atlantic again, through the Bocas, a channel muſt ever exiſt between the continent and Trinidad.

ON THEATRICAL HEARERS.

[By Henry Fielding, Eſq.—Not in his Works.]

WHOEVER can contemplate any one of our capital dramatic pieces, and attend to the ſeveral excellencies that adorn it; the ſerious, the facetious, the pathetic, the terrible, and, what is above all, the ſententious, the moral, and the rational—whoever, I ſay, can contemplate all theſe beauties, and mark how wonderfully they conſpire in ſome ſingle performance, will not be ſurpriſed that not above one Shakſpeare ſhould ariſe in a century, and that when he comes, he comes like a prodigy of the better ſort, where nature (according to the phraſe of a great philoſopher) may be ſaid to have 'outdone her uſual outdoings.'

Should my readers aſk me to what purpoſe this obſervation? I muſt anſwer, it is to prove what they would have owned perhaps without the help of proving, viz. that to write capital dramatic pieces, is not a gift vouchſafed by Providence to the multitude.

I may deſcend even lower. 'Tis no common gift, no mean accompliſhment, to be able to *act* them with an accuracy ſuitable to their intrinſic merit. So rare is it to find a man endowed with the natural eminencies of mind or body (for both muſt concur) to form a perfect actor, that I ſuppoſe it will hardly be denied that where one is born fit to rival a Garrick or a Quin, many hundreds are qualified for paſſable juſtices, for grave doctors in any of the faculties; not to ſay thouſands for captains, fox-hunters, ſtage-coachmen, &c.

As far then as this, I take for granted, I go hand in hand with my readers. They will readily agree with me, that with reſpect to dramatic pieces, few are formed for actors, and fewer ſtill for writers: I mean for ſuch actors and ſuch writers, as may be truly ſaid to approach the ſtandard of perfection.

But from henceforward I fear we ſhall diſſent. Though few think themſelves qualified for writers or actors, yet all think themſelves qualified to be adequate *hearers*: this is a matter in which they have ſeldom any ſcruples.

Now, for my part, if I might venture to oppoſe ſo formidable a body as the multitude, and that in a caſe which immediately affects them; I think there are ſo very few capable of being thoſe hearers which they fancy themſelves, that take a thouſand of the human race that have none of them loſt their ears, and 'tis well if there be ten among them who 'have really ears to hear.' That they have the outward and viſible organs, I freely admit: ſo too have other animals.—Nay, ſome of them poſſeſs theſe natural inſignia in a much more noble and enlarged form than the mightieſt and moſt auguſt among men can pretend to. Yet 'tis plain, this is not enough. Were we to recite Hamlet or Othello to theſe venerable quadrupeds, I fear we ſhould be ſentenced to loſe our labour. In ſhort, what I would aſſert is this, that ears alone are no more ſufficient to make a hearer, than a fiddle alone is ſufficient to make a fiddler.

What then, ſays one, is ſufficient? The anſwer to this queſtion will more eaſily explain itſelf: in other words, we ſhall be better able to ſhow who are truly and properly hearers, if we conſider who in every audience have no pretenſions to this character.

When Mr. Handel firſt exhibited his Allegro and Penſeroſo, there were two ingenious gentlemen who had bought a book of the words, and thought to divert themſelves by reading it before the performance began. Zounds! (cried one of them) what d—d ſtuff this is! D—d ſtaff, indeed, replied his friend. Gad ſo! replied the other, who then firſt caſt his eyes on the title page, *the words are Milton's!*

It happened ſome years ſince, that

a low farce was to be acted for the firſt time after Ben Jonſon's Alchymiſt. Two heroes in the boxes had come there with an intent to amuſe themſelves in damning the farce. As their attention to the play had been taken off by their own more ſublime converſation, together with that of the ladies who diſpenſe oranges, they unluckily took the end of the play for the beginning of the farce, and ſet to hiſſing with the voice, not of ſerpents, but of geeſe. The houſe was amazed; nor were they leſs amazed themſelves, not to hear their muſic kindly returned by their brother-heroes in the pit. In ſhort, the riddle was not ſolved, 'till one, who ſat near them, informed them that the play was not yet over, and of courſe the farce not yet begun. This a little diſcompoſed them, but they ſoon comforted themſelves by obſerving 'twas but a muſty piece of old Jonſon's, and ſo it did not much ſignify.

There are many more ſuch ſtories to be collected; I ſhall, however, not dwell on a few individuals, but paſs to a common practice of whole crowds together. Whoever has attended our theatres, and ſeen our beſt plays acted, muſt have heard many an exquiſite ſpeech of the ſedater kind delivered moſt exactly by an accompliſhed actor, paſs off unregarded in a kind of cold ſilence: while the empty vociferation of ſome wretched performer, has been ſoon after rewarded with a thundering clap of approbation. One would imagine in ſuch a caſe, that the audience looked on the actor as a kind of rival to themſelves, and that they were deſirous to ſhow him they could be louder than he was; or rather (to give the thing a more benevolent explanation) that they were ambitious to pay him in his own way, and generouſly to reward him with what he ſeemed ſo to delight in.

The concluſion is, that none of theſe have ears to hear; that, to be a real hearer, there muſt be ſenſe, judgment, wiſdom, diſcernment, call it as you pleaſe: and that not only in writing, and in acting, but that in *hearing* too

'*Sapere* eſt principium et fons.'

Another circumſtance which diſqualifies perſons for hearers, is the want of attention, or at leaſt the want of proper attention. This defect has no ſmall connexion with our firſt defect, the want of judgment and wiſdom, though ſufficiently diſtinct to merit a ſeparate conſideration.

I remember I was once preſent at a theatrical entertainment of the graver kind, which was very excellent. The audience were giving it much the ſame attention as is given to the reading of depoſitions and affidavits, when lo! an unfortunate cat made her appearance and ran acroſs the ſtage. Pit, box and gallery, in an inſtant ſympathized; their attention became fixed to the ſame admirable point: a louder laugh never aroſe among Homer's gods; nor did I ever remember the beſt ſcenes in the rehearſal to produce half ſo much delight. That there are facts of like kind which happen every week at the theatres, I appeal to the experience of thoſe who frequent them.

When any fine ſet of company make their appearance in the boxes, a ſcene commonly paſſes away before they have taken their places. Another ſcene goes off while the bows and curtſies are exchanging. Then begin the comments upon perſons and dreſſes, which commonly laſt till the play is at an end, and would laſt were it to begin and be acted over again, the voice of the actors having the ſame effect upon theſe talkers, as the ſound of human voices has upon canary-birds and parrots.

There is one ſpecies of inattention which is ſomething peculiar, and that is inattention ariſing from the performance itſelf; when a perſon takes occaſion from ſome trivial incident (a phraſe, a geſture, an accent, or the like) to enter into a heavy and prolix

diſſertation, to the no ſmall grievance of his rational neighbour, whom he compels by addreſſing him to feed upon huſks, while a banquet is before him of the moſt exquiſite kind. A dull digeſter of this ſort is not unlike an old woman at church, turning to her book for the text as ſoon as the preacher has named it: where, if the chapter happen to be miſtaken, the ſpectacles to be clouded, or the leaf to be torn out, 'tis a chance the ſermon is half over before ſhe has heard a ſingle ſyllable.

The concluſion is like the former; that thoſe who cannot attend, or at leaſt cannot attend properly, have not ears to hear, and that of courſe, to be a real hearer, there muſt not only be underſtanding, but juſt and adequate attention.

The laſt, and by far the moſt blameable obſtacle to becoming a real hearer, is the want of candour and humanity; when the ſneer, the grin, the hoot, and the horſe-laugh, are kept in readineſs, like troops, to appear at a moment's warning, and raiſe ungenerous triumphs on the moſt iniquitous occaſions.

There are a race of mortals in this country, who go by the name of *Bucks*. On what pretence they uſurp the name of that noble animal, 'tis hard to ſay, there being both beaſts and birds of very different ſpecies, by whoſe names they would be much more aptly characterized. Be this, however, as it will, bucks they are called. There are alſo two ſpecies of laughter: one derived from a free and ſocial ſpirit, which through every part of it is harmleſs and inoffenſive; the other, founded on inſolence and pride, and which is gall and bitterneſs from beginning to end. It is to this laſt ſpecies of laughter that the bucks are commonly prone. I have beheld a herd of theſe, at the moſt ſerious ſcenes of a fine tragedy, laugh with ſuch an inſolent loudneſs, that the audience, who were all attention, have not been able to hear a word.

And what has been the occaſion? A ſtupid criticiſm of their own upon the performance, ſuch a witticiſm, as a merry-andrew of reputation would have been aſhamed of. Theſe ſame bucks have I ſeen ſtand the high humour of Falſtaff, with as much inſenſibility, as if they had not been bucks, but pigs of lead. Indeed, ſo great is their dullneſs, ſo incorrigible their inſolence, ſo ready is their malevolent grin to diſplay itſelf on every occaſion, ſuch enemies are they to all that is decent, to all that is orderly, to all that is even elegant and truly polite: that if ever knight-errants were to riſe again, I could wiſh they would ariſe, to extirpate this race; to drive them from the face of the earth: to force them 'to the dogs.' That ſuch as theſe are no hearers, is paſt diſpute. They have not only no *ears* to hear; but they have neither *heads* to hear, nor *hearts* to hear. Humanity and candour are ſtrangers to their breaſts.

Let us mark the audience deſcribed by Horace—'I ſaw,' ſays he, 'Bacchus in the remote rocks teaching verſes: I ſaw the nymphs learning, and the ears of the goat-footed ſatyr erect.' How different as to its behaviour is this antique audience from a modern one? For though the Britiſh fair may be well ſaid to equal the faireſt nymphs of antiquity, and though our beaux with their groteſque viſages moſt exactly reſemble the ſatyrs: yet 'tis to be feared our ladies ſeldom attend (like the nymphs) ſo as to learn: and that our beaux ſeldom prick up their ears, to liſten (like the ſatyrs) to any thing worth attention.

The concluſion of the whole is, that to make a perfect hearer, there muſt three things concur; that is to ſay, judgment, attention, and humanity.

OF PUPPIES.

IN A LETTER FROM AN EMINENT NATURALIST.

To the Editor of the Univerſal Magazine.

SIR,

AS you treat your readers occaſionally with ſpecimens of extraordinary animals, and diſquiſitions on ſubjects of natural hiſtory, I make no ſcruple of ſending you ſome account of the *puppy*, an animal often mentioned, often ſeen, often complained of, but never, as far as I know, accurately deſcribed. At the ſame time, I muſt premiſe, that you are not to expect the fulleſt account poſſible of this creature, but ſome few particulars caſually picked up in my reſearches among the animal creation, which, until more full details can be procured, will, perhaps, afford ſome information to your readers.

As the word puppy is not to be found in Linneus, it may be neceſſary to attempt a definition of it. Puppy, then, is derived from the French *poupee*, which means either a whelp, or one of thoſe paſteboard figures which we ſee in the ſhops of faſhionable hairdreſſers to exhibit their ſkill. It originally ſignified the whelp of a female dog, or a young dog, and at that time was known rather in kennels than in families: but it now is underſtood as a ſpecies of human beings, differing from the reſt of mankind in this reſpect, that in the reſt of mankind there is ſomething internal as well as external to be looked at, or expected, whereas with the puppies, all is outſide. When, therefore, we ſpeak of the head of a puppy, we are not ſpeaking of that which contains the brain or intellect, but of a round, empty knob, which has no other preeminence but that of being accidentally placed at the top.

It has been often remarked of our nation, that ſhe has not the merit of having originally produced any of thoſe articles of luxury or neceſſity, in which we delight, or in which we abound, whether we delight in them or not. Thus potatoes and tobacco came originally from America, and puppies (from the above derivation of their name) came from France. Like thoſe vegetables too, eſpecially potatoes, it is found, that though puppies were originally the growth of one particular country, they may be cultivated with ſucceſs in almoſt any; and as it may be doubted whether all America can produce better potatoes than the ſingle county of Lancaſhire, ſo it is pretty certain that puppies have been made to thrive in London with at leaſt equal ſucceſs as in Paris.

In the account of this animal, however, I muſt correct myſelf ſo far as to guard againſt the word *cultivation*, which is not ſtrictly applicable; on the contrary, puppies never flouriſh ſo well as when left to themſelves, and kept free of all cultivation. Thoſe who have attempted cultivation have either not ſucceeded, or they have produced an animal of a quite different ſpecies. Cultivation and education are almoſt ſynonimous terms, and therefore equally improper in this caſe.

At what time they were imported into this country it is not eaſy to ſay: they have been mentioned by writers for nearly two centuries, but it is principally within the laſt hundred years that they have become domeſticated, and that no place has been found entirely free of them. In the metropolis the beſt ſpecimens are to be ſeen, and next to that in the principal cities, and in ſome towns on the ſea coaſt, ſuch as Brighthelmſtone, Margate, &c. but in the latter they are principally in the ſummer, and it is only within theſe thirty years that they frequented thoſe places at all.

The metropolis, however, is the chief haunt of the ſpecies, and no public place is free from them. The

theatres, opera, concerts, and riding-ſchools, the parks, and the moſt frequented ſtreets, particularly between Charing Croſs and Hyde-park-corner, really ſwarm with them.

It was a long time ſuppoſed that they were of the monkey kind. In reſpect to chattering, they certainly reſemble that animal. Their language is pronounced with the ſame kind of confuſed noiſe, and what they ſay is equally ſenſible. They have alſo all the miſchievous tricks of monkeys, and ſomewhat of their knack of imitating common actors, or taking off certain peculiarities; but in other reſpects they totally differ from the monkey, who is a far more faithful and affectionate animal, and fulfills the end of its creation far more punctually. Veracity in matters of natural hiſtory is of great importance, and therefore we have inſtituted this ſhort compariſon between the two animals. It is our preſent buſineſs to do juſtice to puppies, but it muſt not be at the expence of monkies.

We have already hinted, that the puppy is an animal entirely *outſide*. Strip him of that, and you have a mere non-entity, or what we may term the perſonification of *nobody*. It is on the ſkin, or outer covering, that they pride themſelves, and by which they are principally known. It is upon this account that they are ſo much encouraged by various deſcriptions of artiſans, particularly taylors and barbers, who have acquired ſo perfect a knowledge of the genius of the animal, that they can alter its ſhape at pleaſure, and do ſometimes, for the entertainment of the public, produce ſuch extraordinary tranſformations as have been thought worthy of repreſentation on the ſtage, and are often exhibited by artiſts in the print-ſhops. Some ignorant people from the diſtant parts of Wales and Scotland, have bought up theſe prints as reſemblances of wonderful 'phenomena of nature,' and have not been undeceived, until informed, upon good authority, that they are likeneſſes of things made for amuſement, and the good of trade, upon ſhop-boards and blocks, at one time ſtitched with a needle, at another, cut with a pair of ſciſſars.

It is common with natural hiſtorians to enquire into the *uſe* of the animals they deſcribe; but this is a queſtion which in the caſe of *puppies* would be attended with ſome difficulty, and no author, we believe, has ſeriouſly made the attempt. It truth, the more we conſider them, the more uſeleſs they appear. A great part of their time is conſumed in ſleep, or at leaſt, in bed, where they are to be found at the time when the reſt of the world have completed half the buſineſs of the day. Juſtice, however, requires me to add, what indeed I have ſlightly hinted at already, that they occaſion a conſiderable conſumption of broadcloth, and leather, of the latter, particularly in the article of boots: but on the other hand, they have occaſioned a diminution in the demand for ſhoes and ſtockings, none of theſe articles having for many years been conſidered as belonging to the puppy tribe.

With regard to the propagation of this animal, there are many difficulties and uncertainties. That they are capable of propagating their own ſpecies has been doubted, and indeed they very ſeldom marry; but on the other hand they are ſaid to be themſelves the produce of a croſs breed, compoſed of a fool and a fine lady. Theſe produce puppies in abundance, and take ſuch care in rearing them, that they are quite perfect in their kind, by the time they have reached their fifteenth or ſixteenth year, after which their parents ſend them into the world to provide for themſelves, and ſeldom give themſelves much care about them. They are not a very long-lived animal; they are generally worn out after they have been upon the town a few years, and very many of them, when they have arrived at the age of twenty-one, are caught

by perſons appointed for the purpoſe, and locked up in *cages*, of which there are ſeveral in and about the metropolis, particularly in the Old Bailey, and Fleet market, and a very large one in St. George's fields.

Some of them are not abſolutely diſagreeable, and many perſons, eſpecially certain ladies, are particularly fond of them, preferring them to parrots or monkies. Indeed they are, in ſome reſpects, more docile than theſe animals, and perform a greater number of droll and diverting tricks. Some of them can not only call a coach, but hand the company into it, and pay for it afterward; ſome of them can very cleverly defray the expence of a tavern-bill, and will preſent tickets for an opera or concert, like a human being. Some, likewiſe, have been taught various games, although it muſt be confeſſed they play their cards but indifferently, yet if they pull out their money readily and gracefully, it affords conſiderable amuſement to their antagoniſts. Others of them ride on horſeback very expertly, and acquire a knowledge of the buſineſs of the ſtable, equal to that of the moſt rational grooms, and jockies.

When to this is added, the chattering noiſe they make in talking, and the various actions which they are taught to mimick, it may be ſuppoſed that in general they would be preferred to monkeys or parrots, but there are many reaſons why this ſhould not be the caſe, and the principal is, that the expence of keeping them is enormous. Thoſe who have been fondeſt of them, have half ruined themſelves in endeavouring to ſupply one of theſe creatures with ſuch articles of food and cloathing, as it fancies.

I hope theſe few particulars, ſir, will be found to throw ſome light on the hiſtory of this animal—and if you admit them, I ſhall perhaps take the liberty to ſend you an account of ſome other animals, not accurately deſcribed in our books of natural hiſtory—particularly the *aſſes*, which are ſtrangely confounded with a very uſeful animal that carries vegetables, &c.

I am, yours, &c.

LINNEOLUS.

HINTS, PRECEPTS, *and* RECIPES, *for the Uſe of* ARTISTS, MANUFACTURERS, *and others; including various ſhort* Proceſſes *either new, or little known.*

On ſome Kinds of Gilding.

THE value which has always been ſet on articles made of gold, has induced artiſts to deviſe means for giving to works of other metals, by covering them with a thin ſtratum of gold, a greater value than they really poſſeſs. Hence the origin of gilding.

In real gilding, the metal is either immediately covered with leaf gold, or an amalgam is formed of gold and quickſilver, with which the metal is rubbed over, and the quickſilver is then ſublimated by means of heat.

In gilding, a great deal depends on cleaning properly the ſurface of the metal to which the gilding is to be applied, becauſe the union of the gold with the metal becomes then more intimate. Silver, copper, braſs, and pinchbec, may be eaſily gilded, either by means of gold leaf, or of gold amalgamated with mercury; but iron and ſteel with difficulty; nor can ſo durable a gilding be given to them as to other metals by any proceſſes yet known. The cauſe of this is, that the ſurface of iron or ſteel during the proceſs of gilding cannot be kept thoroughly clean.

Gilding Iron or Steel with Gold Leaf.

In this proceſs the metal muſt be heated before the gold leaf can be applied, which expoſes it to the riſque

of having its ſurface oxidated, beſide the danger of having the temper at the ſame time brought too low, when ſword-blades, daggers, and the like, are ſubjected to the proceſs.

Gilding with Amalgam and Nitrate of Mercury.

In gilding iron or ſteel by means of an amalgam, the difficulty and the danger of miſcarrying are ſtill greater; for, as the metal has no affinity for the mercury, an agent muſt be employed to diſpoſe the ſurface to receive the gilding. For this purpoſe a ſolution of mercury in nitrous acid, (*aquafortis*) or what the workmen call quickſilver water, is applied to the parts intended to be gilded: the acid, by a ſtronger affinity, ſeizes on a portion of the iron, and depoſits in the place of it a thin coating of mercury, which will not refuſe a union afterward with the gold amalgam that may be applied; but by this proceſs the ſurface of the metal is injured by the nitrous acid, and the union of the mercury is very ſlight, ſo that a bright and durable gilding cannot be obtained.

Gilding with Amalgam and Sulphate of Copper.

Sometimes a ſolution of ſulphate of copper (*blue vitriol*) is applied, with a camel's hair pencil, to the parts of the ſteel intended to be gilt. By a chymical action exactly ſimilar to what we have deſcribed as taking place when a ſolution of nitrate of mercury is employed, a thin coating of copper is precipitated on the metal. Copper having an affinity for mercury, a kind of union may by this means be effected between the amalgam and the iron or ſteel, as the caſe may be.

In which ever of theſe ways the amalgam be brought into union with the ſteel, the ſurface is injured by the action of the acid employed, and ſtill a heat ſufficient to volatilize the mercury muſt be afterward employed. Moſt artiſts, therefore, follow the firſt proceſs, that of applying gold leaf, and burniſhing it down on the article while hot; which, though a laborious proceſs, is attended with leſs riſk of the ſurface being injured.

An improved Proceſs for gilding Iron or Steel.

This proceſs, which is leſs known among artiſts than it deſerves to be, may prove uſeful to thoſe who have occaſion to gild iron or ſteel. The firſt part of the proceſs conſiſts in pouring over a ſolution of gold in nitro-muriatic acid (*aqua regia*) about twice as much æther, which muſt be done with caution, and in a large veſſel. Theſe liquids muſt then be ſhaken together: as ſoon as the mixture is at reſt, the æther will be ſeen to ſeparate itſelf from the nitro muriatic acid, and to float on the ſurface. The nitro-muriatic acid becomes more tranſparent, and the æther darker than they were before; the reaſon of which is, that the æther has taken the gold from the acid. The whole mixture is then to be poured into a glaſs funnel, the lower aperture of which is ſmall; but this aperture muſt not be opened till the fluids have completely ſeparated themſelves from each other. It is then to be opened; by which means the liquid which has taken the loweſt place by its greater gravity, viz. the nitro-muriatic acid, will run off; after which the aperture is to be ſhut, and the funnel will then be found to contain nothing but æther mixed with the gold; which is to put into well-cloſed bottles, and preſerved for uſe. In order to gild iron or ſteel, the metal muſt be firſt well poliſhed with the fineſt emery, or rather with the fineſt *crocus martis* or *colcothar of vitriol* and common brandy. The auriferous æther is then to be applied with a ſmall bruſh; the æther ſoon evaporates, and the gold remains on the ſurface of the metal; the metal may then be put into the fire, and afterward poliſhed. By means of this auriferous æther all kinds of figures may be delineated on iron by employing a pen or fine bruſh. It is in this man-

ner, we believe, that the Sohlinger ſabre blades are gilded. As every artiſt has not an opportunity of procuring a recipe for the preparation of the nitro-muriatic acid and æther, we ſhall here give proceſſes for both.

Preparation of the Nitro-muriatic Acid.

In a ſufficient quantity of nitrous acid diſſolve as much ſal-ammoniac as it can take up in a cool place. Into this nitro-muriatic acid put the gold, after it has been reduced to fine powder by being filed or beat into thin leaves, and depoſit it in a warm place until it is diſſolved. This ſolution has a golden-yellow colour, and gives a purple tint to animal bodies.

Preparation of the Æther.

Put into a large retort one pound and a half of the ſtrongeſt ſpirit of wine, and pour gradually into it two pounds of the ſtrongeſt ſulphuric acid; ſhaking the retort a little each time the acid is poured in. The liquid will become hot, and the vapours, diſengaged with force, will diffuſe a penetrating and agreeable odour. When you have poured in all the ſulphuric acid, rinſe the neck of the retort by pouring in half a pound more alcohol; and having mixed the whole thoroughly, ſuffer it to ſtand for ſome time well cloſed up.

Then place the retort with the mixture in a ſand-bath, and adapt to it a capacious receiver, and make a fire under the retort. The heat however muſt be ſlow, and ſo moderate that the receiver may never be heated by it. The diſtillation muſt be continued until a ſulphurous odour, inſtead of the agreeable one, is obſerved at the mouth of the receiver. For this purpoſe the receiver may be now and then emptied, by which means the odour can be at all times obſerved.

When the diſtillation is ended you will have obtained an æther; which however always contains partly a little acidulous water, and partly ſome ſpirit of wine.

To obtain it perfectly pure, or to rectify it, put it again into a retort; and having added to it a little diſſolved alkali, in order to abſorb the acid, place it in a very gentle ſand-bath, and adapt to it a receiver. If the half of it be then driven over at a very gentle heat, you will obtain very pure æther.

What remains after the firſt diſtillation conſiſts, for the moſt part, of ſulphuric acid impregnated with ſulphurous gas and with carbonaceous matter furniſhed by the decompoſition of the alcohol.

This reſiduum may be again employed for the preparation of æther. For this purpoſe pour over it good ſpirit of wine, but always a third leſs than before, and proceed to diſtillation: if you then rectify, you will obtain good æther.

Another good Proceſs for Gilding.

Æther is proper, as has been above remarked, for taking up gold from the nitro muriatic acid. Thoſe to whom this preparation of æther, for the purpoſe of gilding, appears too difficult, may uſe in its ſtead eſſential oils, ſuch as ſpirit of turpentine, oil of lavender, and the like; which will alſo take gold from its ſolution.

To prepare the Alcohol.

As it is ſometimes difficult to procure alcohol ready prepared, the following method of rectifying weak ſpirit of wine will be found very advantageous to artiſts:

Take well dried potaſh and pour over it ſpirit of wine: the latter will not unite with the potaſh, but the water which it may contain will be taken up by that alkali. The ſpirit of wine is then to be poured into another glaſs, and ſubjected to the ſame operation as before. This proceſs is to be repeated till it is obſerved that the potaſh is no longer very moiſt. Such ſpirit of wine is exceedingly ſtrong, but rendered a little impure by the potaſh, as will appear from its yelloviſh colour. It muſt therefore be poured into a retort, having a re-

ceiver adapted to it, and diſtilled to a fifth part over a ſlow heat. What comes over is alcohol.

Cold Gilding of Silver.

Beſide the above methods of gilding, there is alſo a cold gilding of ſilver, which can be ſpeedily done, and with little trouble.

Diſſolve gold in the nitro-muriatic acid, and dip ſome linen rags in the ſolution; then burn them, and carefully preſerve the aſhes, which will be very black, and heavier than common. Rub theſe aſhes on the ſurface of the ſilver either with the fingers or a piece of leather or of cork, by which means the fine particles of gold they contain will be left on the ſurface of the metal. If the ſilver be then waſhed, ſo as to remove the remaining part of the aſhes, the ſilver will have ſcarcely any appearance of gilding; but on being burniſhed it will aſſume a beautiful gold colour. This method of gilding is very eaſy, and requires very little gold.

Gilding of Braſs.

Fine inſtruments of braſs, in order that their ſurface may be kept longer clean, may be gilded in the following manner:

Provide a ſaturated ſolution of gold, and, having evaporated it to the conſiſtence of oil, ſuffer it to ſhoot into cryſtals. Theſe cryſtals muſt then be diſſolved in pure water, and the articles to be gilded being immerſed in it are then to be waſhed in pure water, and afterward burniſhed. This proceſs may be repeated ſeveral times till the articles have been well gilt. A ſolution of gold cryſtals is preferred to a mere ſolution of gold, becauſe in the latter there is always a portion of free acid, which will not fail to exerciſe more or leſs action on the ſurface of the braſs or copper, and injure its poliſh.

Lackering of Braſs.

Various articles made of braſs have ſometimes an appearance as if they were gilded. This appearance, however, is produced by means of a ſolution of gum-lac in ſpirit of wine, with which they are rubbed over. As long as the lac laſts, they retain their ſplendour. Theſe articles, however, are attended with this inconvenience, that they muſt never be cleaned with a ſtrong bruſh, or ſcoured with chalk and the like, but only be wiped with a ſoft rag; for as ſoon as the lac is rubbed off they loſe their brilliancy. A varniſh of this kind may be prepared in the following manner:

Diſſolve two ounces of very pure and fine gum-lac in forty-eight ounces of alcohol, and place the ſolution in a ſand-bath expoſed to a moderate heat. To prevent the too abundant evaporation of the ſpirit of wine, as well as the burſting of the glaſs, a piece of bladder ought to be bound over the latter, and a few holes made in it with a needle. In another glaſs diſſolve, in the ſame quantity of ſpirit of wine, an ounce of dragon's blood in grains. When both the ſolutions are completed, mix them together; then put three grains of yellow wood into it, and ſuffer it to remain there twelve hours in a moderate heat: after which ſtrain the liquor through filtering paper, and preſerve it for uſe in a clean glaſs bottle. To give this lac-varniſh a high gold colour, yellow wood is preferable to every other ſubſtance. If the varniſh is intended to be pale, and not to change the colour of the braſs, the yellow wood may be omitted; but if a ſtronger colour be required, a half more of the yellow wood may be added.

SKETCH OF MOSCO. BY MR. TOOKE.

MOSCO, or more properly Moſkva, the metropolis of the Ruſſian empire, is one of thoſe ſtupendous works of time and human induſtry, which mankind, by whom they were produced, behold at length with aſtoniſhment, as doubting whether in reality they are the work of their hands.

From an eminence before the Dorgomubof gate, the eye ſurveys this coloſſal city. The whole face of the horizon ſeems covered with houſes; and deep beneath, where the ſky appears to touch the earth, ſtill gorgeous palaces and lofty towers project their ſummits, preſenting themſelves to the deceived eye as little cottages and thin poles. The perimeter of Moſco amount to ſomewhat above forty verſts, or nearly ſix geographical miles. Three and fifty main ſtreets, ſome whereof are ſeveral verſts in length, and four hundred and eighty-two collateral ſtreets and lanes, interſect this prodigious maſs of houſes, conſiſting of more than ten thouſand buildings. Twelve faſſavas or gates lead into it; and two rivers, the Moſkva and the Yauſa, with the rivulet Neglinnalya, run through it. The Moſkva riſes in the Moſchaiſk circle of the government of Moſco, and falls into the Okka near Kolomna. It abounds in fiſh, and in the ſpring bears conſiderable barks that come from the Okka laden with corn. It divides Moſco into two unequal parts, of which the citerior is the largeſt, the moſt populous, and, in regard to the number of fine ſtructures, the principal. Near the foundling hoſpital the Yauſa takes it up, which riſes at Taininſkoï, twelve verſts from Moſco, and near the Kreml the Neglinnaiya, which takes its ſource in Moſco itſelf, on the Samoteka. Three and twenty bridges keep up the communication between the parts of the town divided by theſe rivers, whereof the chief are the ſtone bridge over the Moſkva, and the court bridge acroſs the Yauſa.

According to the police regulation, Moſco is partitioned into twenty chief diviſions, denominated from the principal ſtreets they ſeverally comprehend, e. gr. the Boſmanſkoi, the Verſkoi, &c. Each of theſe main diviſions are again divided into ſeveral quartals.

The population of Moſco differs greatly according to the ſeaſon of the year. In winter, when the numerous nobility, with their hoſts of retainers, flock into the metropolis, the number of the inhabitants amounts to upward of three hundred thouſand; whereas in ſummer, when they are allured back to the country, it does not exceed two hundred thouſand. Accordingly, in the former ſeaſon, all is much more lively and buſtling than during the ſummer. Trade, amuſements, companies, are then inſpired with new life, and the ſtreets are crowded with carriages; whereas in ſummer the rolling of a coach is but rarely heard.

The climate of Moſco is certainly to be reckoned among the moſt ſalubrious. The ſituation is high, and the ſoil on which it ſtands dry, a few moraſſy parts about the Yauſa and the Neglinnaiya excepted. Add to this that the atmoſphere is generally clear and bright, and the weather regular and wholeſome. The winter is particularly remarkable for ſettled and bright weather. It is abſolutely impoſſible for an inhabitant of warmer countries to form a conception of a fine winter's day in the northern climes. The atmoſphere is then ſo pure, that we feel the genial virtue of it at every breath. The ſky is ſo bright, that the eye is ſcarcely able to bear it; and all the objects around have a ſuperior and grander look than uſual. The ſtrong impulſe to take exerciſe in the cold bracing winter air is not to be deſcribed, and a better method can hardly be imagined for the confirmation and eſtabliſhment of health than by ſuch a bath in the invigorating æther of the winter.

Beſides, the ſtreets of Moſco are broad, the ſquares are ſpacious, and in various parts are extenſive gardens; the houſes are moſtly of only one ſtory, and not contiguous, but ſeparated by interſtices from each other, ſo that the air and the ſun diffuſe their benign influences in every part of them, and noxious vapours can no where ſtagnate. Advantages in which other large cities are commonly deficient. All this contributes to render the reſult of the liſts of births and deaths always favourable to population. Contagious diſtempers but ſeldom prevail,

and ſtill ſeldomer are they dangerous and ravaging. It is common to ſee aged perſons of all ranks, though the rules of ſalutary diet are ſo often tranſgreſſed. It is to be obſerved, likewiſe, that the geographical poſition of Moſco, in 35° 45′ 4″ north lat. and 55° 12′ 4″ eaſt long. is doubtleſs one of thoſe that are moſt propitious to the health of man. For neither ſcorching heats nor intenſe froſts impede the growth and expanſion of animal nature. On the contrary, the degree of cold which marks the winter here, contributes rather to harden and fortify the body. Hence ariſes the ſtrong and nervous ſtructure of the men who properly compoſe the Moſcovites, whoſe families have been long ſettled in this city, and are particularly met with among the mercantile people of the place.

THE CHYMISTRY OF MORALITY.

By the Rationalist.

IT has been noticed, and repreſented as a proof of curious economy, that amid the aſtoniſhing variety of the works of nature, there is a wonderful uniformity. Things and ſubjects, which, to a curſory view, appear not to have the leaſt connexion, are, by a nicer inſpection, found to coincide in many particulars and properties. We will endeavour to illuſtrate this truth, by bringing together and comparing two ſubjects, apparently heterogeneous; chymical leſſons and productions, and cauſes and effects of virtues and vices: and by metaphorically deriving, from the former, hints and applications of ſervice in the latter.

The chymiſtry of morality may raiſe a ſmile, perhaps a ſcoff; but ſtop, pert railer, and withhold a while your taunts; you are yourſelf a mineral, and you are a vegetable; and may be conſidered in either capacity.—There will be this advantage if man be conſidered as a mineral, that a wider field preſents itſelf for obſervation, as the ſkill of an artiſt is moſt required and exerted in that department of natural hiſtory, nature leaving more to perfect therein than in the botanic world. To mineralogy we therefore chiefly confine our thoughts, and, as well as indifferent chymiſts can acquit themſelves, we will ſtrive to allegorize the ſcience of man, in a few leading and detached obſervations, and to cement that and chymiſtry together; a proceſs beſet with fewer difficulties, than the art of uniting two congenial bodies, iron and gold.

Man is, in fact, to be regarded in the light of a mineral. From the hand of nature he comes forth rude, unformed, myſterious, wild, and, perchance, unprofitable, or dangerous, incloſing within, poiſon, pain and death. Like a mineral, too, he contains treaſures, antidotes, health and phyſic. Merely becauſe the mineral is dug up rude, or uſeleſs, it is not thrown aſide by the ingenious artiſt. He works and purges, tranſmutes and ſeparates, compounds and decompounds, till, out of a chaotic maſs, he draws a regular, pure, and valuable ſubſtance——The natural ſtate of man is an equally ſtrange jumble of confuſion. Finding him with vague, irregular, and noxious inclinations, the moral chymiſt regulates and corrects, purifies, and changes his native features, and, out of the unmeaning maſs, makes up a noble being, a valuable member of ſociety, and a good man. But if his labour is fruitleſs, by the miſcarriage of his proceſs, and his ſubject proves refractory, he is, by general conſent, recommitted to the earth, like the refuſe of metal, to fructify the ſoil afreſh, and produce thoſe qualities which were vainly expected; and the earth generates new ſeeds of treaſure from the dregs and corruption of what was before rejected as worthleſs.

As our limits will not allow us tediouſly to ſpin out the allegory, by pur-

ſuing all the operations of chymiſtry, we will be particular only on the great proceſſes of *ſeparation* or *refinement*, and *extraction* of *eſſences*.

Refinement and diſtillation conſiſt in diſſevering the eſſence from the dregs, the ſpirit from the *caput mortuum*. Cinnabar contains a hidden portion of mercury, but it is loſt upon us if we uſe not the means of ſeparation. Inſtead of a ſhining ſtream of running metal, the ſulphur with which it is joined gives it the appearance of a ſtagnant ſluggiſh lump, beautiful indeed to the eye, but devoid of motion and activity. Experiment only would have evinced, that out of this red lump of enert matter a portion of rich flowing metal could be extracted, white as purity. As in this mineral, ſo in man, the virtues are choked up and loſt in dregs, and can only be called out by art and diligence. Education is that refinement in the moral world, without which man is but a brute or a ſavage. By education his dregs and droſs are purged away, which deformed his nature: and he becomes a man.

There have been found veins of ſtreaming purity, as we read in the accounts of the quickſilver mines of Friuli, in Hungary, unmixed with heterogeneous dregs; but ſuch prizes are eſteemed as rare. Hiſtory tells us of wedges of ſolid and almoſt pure gold, found by the Spaniards, and ſent as a preſent to the monarch who ſwayed the ſceptre at the diſcovery of the new world, to ſhow what riches they were become maſters of; but they are noted as prodigies; and hiſtory records virtue found among the unpoliſhed race of ſavages; but it is unſafe to truſt to the hopes of ſuch phenomena. There have been tempers of ſo amiable and well-diſpoſed a turn, as ſcarcely to need the officious aid of moral precepts: but if nature does at times amuſe us with her prodigies of goodneſs, ſhe wills that we deem them a favour, not ordinarily to be aſked of her, or expected.

Different men are different minerals, and call for a diverſity of treatment, when we form them individually. Judgment is indiſpenſably requiſite in our proceſſes, without which we only gain a *caput mortuum*, or a poiſon. A general rule invariably applied is abſurd. Butter will melt by the ſide of a fire, and recover its conſiſtence in the cold. Salt is diſſolved by water, but dried and hardened by heat.

Much emphaſis is to be laid on the neceſſity of perfectly underſtanding our ſubjects and its properties; on finding out its foibles and its excellencies. When we have attained a knowledge of them, we tread on certain ground, and are enabled to proceed with a proſpect of ſucceſs. Then we are to correct nature by choſen methods, judiciouſly, and with diſcernment; to counteract vicious inclinations, and confirm good propenſities; to curb unruly tranſports, and give ſtrength to languor and weakneſs.

In compounding, the ſkill of an artiſt is eminently concerned. Wicked ſophiſtry, thrown in the way of pliant ſimplicity, has wrought as diſmal effects as a conjunction of mercury with a ſalt, innocent in themſelves when ſeparate. The *momentum* of the former is harmleſs, by reaſon of the roundneſs of its conſtituent parts; and the ſtimulating qualities of the latter are of no avail, if without the *momentum* of the mercury: but they are armed with dreadful ſhafts by an unadviſed combination. A ſuſceptibility of miſchief by nature muſt not receive the power of it from art. Pour not wine on weakneſs, nor put fire in the hands of madmen and infants.

In extracting eſſences, a regular heat muſt be kept up. Exceſſive, or unguided blaſts, will waſte the ſpirits, will ſet the whole in a furious blaze. On man pour not your influence unſkilfully and inordinately. Lead him gently by the hand, and cautiouſly proceed in treating him. Suit your precepts, your corrections, your rewards, to his humour, to his patience, to his deſerts.

When the utmoſt careand ſkill are

adopted, when means, in all human probability adequate to the end propoſed, are uſed, then the default lies not at the artiſt's door. The ſubject of his labour muſt be naturally exceeding worthleſs, if ſo much care will not avail; but ſuch ſubjects there are, and ſuch there ever will be, both in the moral and in the natural world, as long as men continue to be men, and minerals to be minerals. Some extraordinary difficulties are ſurmountable by the adoption of extraordinary diligence and ſagacity. It is the peculiar buſineſs of ſkill and attention to ſubdue difficulties and break through obſtructions. The worſe a patient is, the more praiſe redounds to the phyſician that cures him.

The virtues of a nation more depend on the ſuperintendants of it than on individuals. Men, from the poliſhed European to the American ſavages, from the moſt barbarous ages to the preſent enlightened time, have been all compoſed of the ſame numerical clay; law and cultivation having made the principal diſtinction between them. Of the ſame fleſh and blood, the glorious Antonine and the infamous Nero were made. The one was a model of virtue, by obedience to its precepts; the other a proverb of villany, by a lawleſs obſequiouſneſs to his baſeſt paſſions. This truth is peculiarly exemplified in the ſurpriſing influence company and connexions have on the manners and diſpoſitions of men, which are almoſt invariably modified by the neareſt patterns. But the caſe of governors and their people is nearly the ſame, with that of workmen, and their tools and materials, which are often complained of when nothing but their own ignorance or careleſneſs merits the blame.

In the natural world, the greateſt extractor of eſſences is fire: in the moral world, that fire is repreſented by *rewards*. Virtue is an elixir, hid in the ſecret receſſes of the heart, to be called forth by help of this moral fire. If we expect ſucceſs to crown our labours, we muſt proceed in conformity to the rules of art. Minerals demand the aſſiſtance of fire to be advanced into metals; men need encouragement to perfect them. It is the buſineſs of prudence cloſely to purſue nature in all her windings; to read the pages of her book; to borrow from her hints; and to obey her mandates. She is the beſt inſtructor, and never miſleads, but when ſhe is miſinterpreted. Taught by her, we learn that weeds only will flouriſh ſpontaneouſly; flowers and fruit aſk our care. The moſt valued flowers die away if they are not cautiouſly tended; and fruits grow acid if not engrafted.

Rewards and pleaſures are cauſes: virtue and the general good are effects. Diſſever them, and the chain of events is broken. Virtue muſt either be a pleaſure, or it muſt meet encouragement, otherwiſe it ceaſes to exiſt. By nature a few are virtuous, but they are exceedingly ſcarce: by proper cultivation we have a plentiful harveſt to reward our toil. Villains are virtuous when hired in the cauſe; and honeſty is corrupted by an enormous bribe.

Reward conſiſts not only in pecuniary gratification; it has a more extenſive latitude, and is ſeen in a thouſand forms. A man of honour is rewarded, when a villain is puniſhed, becauſe he eſcapes that puniſhment. He is rewarded when he is honoured and diſtinguiſhed; and he is rewarded when he eſcapes reproach. Through theſe, and a variety of other channels, may a recompenſe be conveyed by the ſkilful exertion of juſtice. Occaſion prompts what may be done, and ſagacity conceives the hint. In a judicious application of a few ſimple truths, reſides the ſkill of a legiſlator; and without a knowledge of them he is bewildered in his office, and gropes unguided in the dark.

Each ſucceeding race of man is by nature but a repetition of the ſame eternally revolving ſcenes. If nations are wiſely modified by thoſe who pre-

ſide over them, their virtue, like pure and ſhining metal, will reflect a ſplendour on the moral chymiſts. If they are committed to the care of knavery or inſufficiency, they will do no honour to their ſuperiors.

Read the hiſtory of every ſtate and nation that has enjoyed exiſtence, and we find law and legiſlature, miſrule and anarchy, to have been the priſtine ſources of order and diſorder. To look for virtue from any thing but its cauſe, is to look for fire in the ſea. Every imaginable diſtinction ought to be ſhown to its friends, or Aſtræa will never reſide among us. In vain we implore the preſence of that amiable goddeſs, if we prepare not for her a place fit for her reception.

When once the manners of a nation begin to be improved, the work advances in a triplicate ratio, by the power of example. The burden, that before reſted on the baſis of reward, is eaſed by this ſecond ſtrenuous advocate in the cauſe. Men are aſhamed of being virtuous alone, becauſe it looks like puritaniſm and ſuperſtition. they love to have companions to keep them in countenance, and diveſt them of the appearance of ſingularity. So that, in this caſe, as in many others, to begin the work well is ſtrictly half the completion of it. To the force of example muſt be chiefly attributed thoſe repeated acts of fortitude in war, ſignalized by the Romans. A few leading men among them at firſt exerted their proweſs againſt their enemies the ſabines, the Gauls, and ſome other nations, in defence of their doubtful ſituation, and their leading examples were copied by the whole race of their emulous poſterity, who found courage and victory leagued in common together.

In the foregoing conſiderations is implied the important truſt committed to princes and magiſtrates, which is nothing leſs than the general good of their ſubjects, and the vicegerency of heaven on earth. The original ſource of virtues is to be traced up to the throne; from whence in rivulets it flows, or ought to flow, through all the inferior channels of legiſlation. Individuals, their ſubjects, have little elſe to conſult, in compariſon of them, beſide their private concerns; but they have the burden of Atlas reſting on their ſhoulders.

By way of compenſation for theſe expected ſervices, honours were invented to ſtimulate their endeavours, and bribe them to a faithful diſcharge of their ſeveral duties. Riches and ſplendour are only the hires of their office, not intended as baubles and toys, to amuſe and divert the great babies of a nation. On the head of a uſeleſs monarch, the crown is but a tinſel cap; his ſword is a foil; his ſceptre a cat-ſtick, and his globe a tennis-ball.

To ſum up the tenor of this paper in brief, and not further to declaim, theſe important truths ſhould be remembered as reverently as the laſt words of a departing ſoul; that man is a *mineral*; that governors are *chymiſts*; and that virtue is an *elixir*.

SIGNAL INSTANCE OF GERMAN HONESTY.

[From Storch's Picture of Peterſburg.]

IN the little town of Oranienbaum lives a woman, bordering on ninety, by name Chriſtophorevna, a native of Holſtein. A little cottage is her ſole poſſeſſion, and the viſits of a few ſhip-maſters coming over from Cronſtadt to go to Peterſburg by land, when the wind does not ſerve for ſailing up, her only livelihood,

Several Dutch ſkippers having one evening ſupped at her houſe, on their departure ſhe found a ſealed bag of money under the table. Her ſurpriſe at this unexpected diſcovery was naturally very great; ſome one of the company juſt gone muſt certainly have forgotten it: but they were ſailed over to Cronſtadt and perhaps at ſea, the

wind being fair, and therefore no hope of the gueſts returning. The good woman put up the bag in her cupboard, to keep it till called for. However, nobody called for it. Full ſeven years did ſhe carefully keep this depoſit, often tempted by opportunities, ſtill oftener preſſed by want, to employ this gift of chance. Her honeſty, however, overcame every allurement of opportunity, and every command of want. Seven years had elapſed when ſome ſhipmaſters again ſtopped at her houſe, to take what refreſhment they could find. Three of them were Engliſhmen, the fourth a Dutchman. Converſing of various matters, one of the former aſked the Dutchman whether he had ever before been at Oranienbaum.—'Yes, ſure I have,' returned he; 'I know the curſed place but too well: my being here once coſt me ſeven hundred rubles.'—'How ſo?'—'Why, in one of theſe wretched hovels here I once got rather tipſy, and left behind me a bag of rubles.'—'Was the bag ſealed?' aſked old Chriſtophorevna, who was ſitting in one corner of the room, and had been rouſed to attention by what ſhe had heard.—'Yes, yes, it was ſealed, and with this very ſeal here at my watch-chain.' The woman looked at the ſeal, and knew it directly. 'Well, then,' ſaid ſhe, 'by that you may be able to recover what you loſt.'—'Recover it, mother! no; I am rather too old to expect that. The world is not quite ſo honeſt as that comes to. Beſides, conſider it is now ſeven years ſince.—I wiſh I had not mentioned it; it always makes me melancholy. Let us have no more of it. Give me another tumbler of punch, mother.'

While the four gentlemen were engaged in drowning the remembrance of the doleful accident in punch, the good woman had ſlipt out, and was now waddling in with her bag.—'See here, perhaps you may be convinced that honeſty is not ſo rare as you imagined,' ſaid ſhe, putting the bag upon the table.

The gueſts were dumb with aſtoniſhment; and, on recollecting themſelves, the reader may repreſent to himſelf their ſeveral expreſſions of commendation and gratitude. The four captains were all rather ſtricken in years, and had navigated the ſeas from Japan to Newfoundland, and from the Cape of Good Hope to Archangel; had had dealings with black and brown faces, with woolly-haired and powdered heads—therefore that their amazement was ſo great, is certainly no panegyric on our times.

Never were ſuch ſtrong emotions excited in any human mind, as in that of the Dutchman. From the firmeſt perſuaſion of his loſs to the completeſt certainty of its recovery—the tranſition was too ſudden and too great not to ſet every fibre of his phlegmatic body in vibration. One look at the honeſt woman to whom he was indebted for this tranſport of joy, brought him to himſelf. A ſudden impulſe of magnanimity overpowered him, to which all other ſenſations reverently gave way. He ſeized the bag, tore open the ſeal, took—one ruble out, and laid it on the table, with a civil thankſgiving for the trouble his hoſteſs had had.

If the aſtoniſhment of the other three was great before, it was now effaced by a greater. They ſtood looking at one another for a minute, as ſilent as the grave.

Dammee, at laſt exclaimed one of the Engliſhmen, ſtriking his fiſt upon the table; 'that bag there, my lad, you ſhall not carry off ſo. Devil fetch me, but the old woman ſhall have it!'—His two countrymen, who had been mute till now, added their hearty concurrence to his propoſal. The Dutchman turned pale, but endeavoured to conſole himſelf by the reiterated proteſtations of Chriſtophorevna, that ſhe required nothing at all, that ſhe thought ſhe had done no more than her duty, and inſiſted that the Dutchman ſhould even take back his ruble. However, the Britons could not ſo eaſily be brought to ſtrike ſail. The converſation grew warm; the oaths

followed rapidly on each other, and the fiſts of the Engliſhmen were doubling ſpontaneouſly, and attitudes forming for putting an end to the diſpute *via facti:* during all which the Dutchman was ſtriving to get the *corpus delicti* into his cuſtody.

After long debate, conducted with various degrees of heat, perceiving no poſſibility of ſucceſs againſt the ſturdy arguments likely to be advanced, the ſkipper agreed to part with fifty rubles. The Engliſhmen inſiſted on a hundred. This propoſal ſeemed to the Dutchman ſo unreaſonable, that he declared he would ſooner encounter the whole weight of their fiſts than comply with it.

'Avaſt, my lads!' cried the captain who had made the firſt attack upon the Dutchman's generoſity; 'I have ſomewhat to ſay. The bag does not belong to us: that is true; but a Briton will never ſtand by, and not ſee juſtice done: and, by Heaven, the woman here has acted nobly, and ought to be rewarded. Give me hold of the bag. I will count out the hundred rubles.'

No ſooner ſaid than done. The Dutchman, thunderſtruck at this ſummary way of proceeding, had not time to recover himſelf before the hundred rubles were fairly counted upon the table.

This brought on a truce. Where humanity, gratitude, generoſity, and Engliſh fiſts had made the attack in vain, there conquered—national pride. The Dutchman inſiſted upon it, that the Britons ſhould let him treat them; and in perfect ſtoical reſignation parted with a hundred of his beloved, long-lamented, and lately recovered rubles.

THE GLEANER.

NUMBER XXXIX.

THE ſubject of my laſt paper, the arrival of the preliminaries of peace, has procured to me the honour of a very extenſive correſpondence, to much of which I am ſorry it is not in my power to attend. It comes not within my province to conſider that, or any other public event, with the eye of a ſhrewd, or a zealous politician. Writers of papers of this deſcription, like writers for the ſtage, have agreed to exclude politics, as being ſubjects improper for a mixed audience, or for general readers. And, in truth, when we ſee ſo many other channels open for the conveyance of political knowledge, or the furtherance of political rancour, it would be hard to inſiſt that the ſtage and the cloſet ſhould be diſturbed by ſubjects on which men rarely agree, and by diſputes which are perhaps never attended by conviction on either ſide.

For this reaſon I muſt decline entering with my correſpondent, A. B. on the integrity of Turkey or Poland; and have no very great inclination, with C. D. to inveſtigate the produce of Trinidad or Ceylon; and whatever my private ſentiments may be, I muſt recommend to E. F. to carry his eloquent letter in favour of French monarchy to ſome other publication; and I eſpecially notify to G. H. that his high panegyric on the virtues of a republican government will not appear in the Gleaner, either during peace or war.

I am more inclined to liſten to the raptures of Myrtilla, who expatiates on the peace, as opening a new trade in articles of dreſs and ornament, and ſeems delighted with the idea that we ſhall again be enabled to engage in commercial ſpeculations, with the cities of Bruſſels and Valenciennes. Perhaps, too, ſome allowance may be made for her hint, that prohibitions ought to be taken off theſe articles, although this is more than it is my buſineſs to propoſe to government, and is a ſubject, of the propriety of which ſome doubts will probably be

entertained by the lace-manufacturers of Great Britain. In the mean time, ſhe may ſafely reckon upon varieties of dreſs among the *bleſſings* of peace. A very ſtrict intercourſe will be carried on between Paris, and that part of Great Britain, called Bond-ſtreet, and no change of colour, ſhape, body, train, trimming, hats, bonnets, gowns, petticoats, (if they ſhould ever be wore again) ribands, &c. can take place in the one, without being immediately wafted over to the other, on the wings of fleet and ſwif meſſengers, milliners, and pattern-dolls.

But what ſhall I ſay to my correſpondent *Moralis*, who writes in a very diſpirited manner, and expreſſes his apprehenſion, that we ſhall be ruined by an inundation of French follies and vices. No man would regret the peace with more heart felt ſorrow than myſelf, if I thought that this would be one of its conſequences, and although I do not think it neceſſary to inſert the whole of his letter, nor anſwer it at preſent ſo particularly as it may deſerve, yet I am of opinion that there is not much cauſe for thinking that we ſhall be *worſe* in this reſpect than during the war.

My reaſon is, that we have confeſſedly at preſent as great a ſhare of vices and follies, as our markets can poſſibly take off. It matters little to examine whether they are of our own growth, or imported from the continent. It is ſufficient to ſtate, what every man will readily acknowledge, that there is an abundant *plenty* on hand, and that for many years to come; without the poſſibility that we can ever be reduced to buy or borrow any of our neighbours, or that we can ever have room to admit them, ſuppoſing they were to ſend them over *gratis*.

It is indeed natural to think that ſuch articles increaſe in plenty during peace, and that conſequently there is a ſcarcity during war. But this latter propoſition appears not to be of univerſal application. Whether it was owing to any ſingular property in the late war, or not, I ſhall not pretend to determine, but certain it is, no man has had any reaſon to complain of a decreaſe in the number or value of the ſaid articles for the laſt nine years, and all the difference, in my humble opinion, that peace will occaſion, may probably be to bring ſome of them a little more within the reach of the lower claſſes.

I have received ſome other communications on this important ſubject, of which perhaps notice may be taken hereafter.—In the mean time, I muſt give place to the following letter, which comes from a pen of the *old ſchool*, a ſchool to which I think we are much more indebted than we are willing to allow.

Style, my readers will agree with me, is a moſt hacknied topic in our days. Every work of polite literature gives ſome ſtrictures upon it, or ſome rules for its improvement, but ſuch are the diſcordancies between critics, that nothing deciſive has ever yet been eſtabliſhed, and ſo far are we from coming to an agreement on the ſubject, that very modern authors ſeem even unacquainted with the writers mentioned here, or affect to take their character at ſecond hand, and to deſpiſe it—with what propriety, may be ſeen in the following letter, which was written to a young man, at a time when purity of ſtyle was more ſtudied than it is now. But I ſhall not detain the reader with any further reflections of my own. Let Mr. Hughes, the writer of this letter, ſpeak for himſelf, and his ſubject.

'When,' ſays he, 'by the help of ſtudy, a ſufficient ſtock of ſolid learning is acquired, the next buſineſs is to conſider how to make uſe of it to the beſt advantage. There is nothing more neceſſary to this, than good ſenſe and polite learning; for as a man may have the firſt without the latter, ſo it is poſſible one may have the latter, and yet be rather the worſe than the better for it, at leaſt to others, if not to himſelf. A plain unlettered man is always more agreeable com-

pany, than a fool in ſeveral languages. For a pedant, though he may take himſelf for a philoſopher, is far more prejudiced than an illiterate man; and ſufficiency, the chief part of his character, beſide the ill-manners of it, is really (as ſir William Temple obſerves) the worſt compoſition out of the pride and ignorance of mankind. Beſides, affectation, its uſual attendant, is every body's averſion, from the natural hatred we have to all manner of impoſture.

So that if there was nothing elſe to recommend polite learning, yet methinks this were enough, that it files off the ruſt of the academy, and is the ſame to the mind, as dancing to the body, a means of giving it a free air and genteel motion. In a word, it adds the gentleman to the ſcholar, and when theſe two meet, they challenge all men's reſpect and love.

Hiſtory and Poetry are the two chief branches of thoſe ſtudies, that are diſtinguiſhed by the name of polite. But becauſe your enquiry ſeems more particularly concerning language, I ſhall confine my diſcourſe to the ſtyle of proſe, as being that which is the moſt neceſſary. For poetry, though it want not arguments to recommend it, yet it may be diſpenſed with, and is either to be taken, or let alone, at pleaſure.

All the qualifications of a good ſtyle I think may be reduced under theſe four heads, propriety, perſpicuity, elegance and cadence: and each of theſe, except the laſt, has ſome relation to the thoughts, as well as to the words.

Propriety of thoughts is two-fold; the firſt is when the thoughts are proper in themſelves; and ſo it is oppoſed to nonſenſe: and the other when they are proper to the occaſion, and ſo it is oppoſed to impertinence.

Propriety of words, the firſt qualification of a good ſtyle, is when the words do juſtly and exactly repreſent, or ſignify, the thoughts which they ſtand for. The knowlecge of this is not to be ſought for in etymologies; for general acceptation, which is the only ſtandard of ſpeech, has given many words a quite different ſenſe from their original. Your beſt direction then will be a diligent and careful peruſal of the moſt correct writers of the language in their various kinds, with the converſation of people of faſhion, that ſpeak well and without affectation. The moſt correct writers that I know, are ſir William Temple, Dr. Sprat, and Dr. Tillotſon, for proſe, and Mr. Waller for verſe. I mention the laſt, becauſe propriety both of thoughts and words is his chief excellence, in which he has ſcarce any equal. I have heard that archbiſhop Tillotſon took the pains to ſtudy all the ſynonymous words of the language, with the nice differences of them, which are commonly very little obſerved, yet contribute very much to the propriety of expreſſion. There is another particular which I ſhall mention here, becauſe I think it differs but little from propriety, and that is *purity*, which I take more particularly to reſpect the language, as it is now ſpoke or written. The rule of this is modern uſe.

By this rule, all obſolete words are to be avoided. But to a man of long practice and reputation in the language, the privilege may be allowed ſometimes of reviving old, or bringing in new words, where the common ones are deficient. For this reaſon, we dare not cenſure ſo great a man as Milton for his antiquated words, which he took from Spencer. A good inſtance, in my opinion, of a new word, is the verb *falſify*, which Mr. Dryden borrows from the Italian, to ſignify *not to be of proof*.

——— his ſhield
Is *falſified*, and round with jav'lins filled.

But this liberty, though indulged to the force and majeſty of verſe, if it were made uſe of in proſe, which is the ſtyle of buſineſs, would be af-

ſectation; and is therefore, as was ſaid before, carefully to be avoided.

Little need be ſaid of the ſecond qualification, viz. Perſpicuity. If your thoughts be not clear, it is impoſſible your words ſhould, and conſequently you cannot be underſtood. The chief ſecret here is to expreſs yourſelf in ſuch a manner as to tranſfer your ideas into the reader's mind, and to ſet the thing before him in the very ſame light in which it appears to yourſelf. Here an extreme is to be ſhunned, leſt, while you aim to make your meaning more fully underſtood, you become verboſe. So that the art lies in expreſſing your thoughts clearly in as few words as poſſible. Practice is the beſt way to attain this; and it may be uſeful to write ſome eſſay, and lay it by, till you have forgot it: and then look over it as the work of a ſtranger. By this means you may diſcover a great many faults which eſcaped you in the heat of writing, and be able to correct them.

Elegance of thought is what we commonly call wit, which adds to propriety, beauty, and pleaſes our fancy, while propriety entertains our judgment. This depends ſo much on genius, that it is impoſſible to teach it by rules. To the elegance of words, or ſtyle, belong all the figures of rhetoric, and to uſe theſe to advantage requires a judgment well formed by obſervation. In this, therefore, as in learning the graces upon an inſtrument of muſic, good examples are the beſt inſtruction. Thus a man may write metaphors, tropes, hyperboles, and all the other figures, without the trouble of ſtudying a ſyſtem of rhetoric; and I believe better too, for to attend to a great many rules while you are writing, is the way to make your ſtyle ſtiff and conſtrained, whereas elegance conſiſts very much in a genteel eaſe and freedom of expreſſion: it is like a coy miſtreſs, of ſo nice a humour, that to court her too much, is the ſureſt way to loſe her: and as ſucceſs in love is owing to good fortune, and the natural happineſs of pleaſing, rather than to fidelity and attendance, ſo the art of chuſing, out of ſeveral expreſſions equally proper, that which is the moſt graceful, is beſt called a *curioſa felicitas*, which two words ſeem to comprehend all that can be ſaid upon this head.

The laſt qualification I mentioned is *Cadence*, in poetry called the *Numbers*. It conſiſts in diſpoſing of the words in ſuch order, and with ſuch variation of periods, as may ſtrike the ear with a ſort of muſical delight, which is a conſiderable part of eloquence. This is chiefly that which makes a ſtyle ſmooth, and not merely the avoiding of harſh words. The beſt way to attain it, is to prepare yourſelf, before you begin to write, by reading in ſome harmonious ſtyle, that ſo you may get your ear well in tune.

Beſide all theſe qualifications, there is ſomething in language, which, to borrow a word from ſinging, may be called a *manner*. This, like the air of faces, is a mark of diſtinction, by which every one has ſomewhat peculiar to itſelf from all others. For, beſide the manifeſt difference between beauty and deformity, there is a wonderful variety even among good faces, for which reaſon the painters have learned, from many ſcattered beauties, to collect one perfect idea, which is hard to be found in any individual.

To apply this; ſir William Temple, ſir Roger L'Eſtrange, and Dr. Sprat (to mention no more) are each of them allowed maſters in the tongue, and yet every one has a different manner, as may be ſeen by a ſhort character of each.

The ſtyle of ſir William Temple is very harmonious and ſweet, full of ſpirit, *racineſs of wit*, to uſe a word of his own. His ſimilies are particularly fine, his alluſions graceful, his words ſignificant, and the whole has a kind of charm, which amuſes

the reader with ſerious pleaſure, puts him in a good humour while he is reading, and leaves him thoughtful when he breaks off.

L'Eſtrange's talent is humour, in which his vein flows very freely: agreeably to this he is a perfect maſter of all the idioms and proverbial expreſſions which are peculiar to our tongue; theſe he often applies happily enough, though ſometimes not without affectation: yet, generally ſpeaking, his ſtyle is pleaſant, ſmooth and natural; and that gayety and ſeeming negligence, which is peculiar to him, entertains you with a familiar ſort of delight, like that of witty and facetious company. There is the ſame difference in the ſtyles of theſe two, as in thoſe of Cicero and Terence in the Latin; in the firſt you find more of the orator, and in the latter more of the Engliſhman.

The elegant Dr. Sprat is, in my judgment, one of the moſt genteel and exact writers we have. His ſtyle is grave and manly, infinitely preferable to ſir Roger's, and having all that is beautiful in ſir William Temple, only (if it is poſſible) with more correctneſs and decency. There appears in him all the ſweetneſs and fluency, handſome turns and apt expreſſions, that can be deſired. He has united the moſt charming elegance to the ſtricteſt propriety, and is witty without the leaſt ſhadow of affectation. The ſoft cadence of his periods, methinks, reſembles the current of a pleaſant ſtream. It makes but little noiſe, yet affects you with a calm delight, which, if it were heard louder, would be loſt.

There are ſeveral other writers which may be read with great profit; and above all, the incomparable Tillotſon, who always writes the beſt ſenſe, and in the beſt manner. That which particularly recommends him, is an eaſineſs and beautiful ſimplicity in all his expreſſions, which every one that reads him is apt to think may be imitated without much difficulty, and yet nothing perhaps is ſo hard in the experiment.

——— ——— ut ſibi quivis
Speret idem, ſudet multum fruſtraque laboret.

HOR.

This brings to my mind what monſ. Le Clerc ſays, that 'tis much eaſier to imitate the loftieſt flights in Seneca's tragedies, or Lucan, than the ſimplicity of Terence.

After you have obſerved the different manner of ſtyle among the beſt writers, and collected a general idea from them all, you are to conſider next the different manner to be uſed by the ſame writer, according to the ſubject he treats of. The ſeverity of philoſophy requires a grave *didactick* ſtyle, agreeable to the plainneſs and ſimplicity of truth and reaſon. Morality and divinity are capable of all the ornaments of wit and fancy. Hiſtory is content with a plainer dreſs, as being a relation of matters of fact, the reflections upon which are to be ſhort and pertinent, and the reſt left to the various humour of every reader.

But of all ſorts of writing, there is none has that variety and liberty as letters and eſſays: the former, eſpecially, include all ſubjects whatſoever, and are varied not only according to the ſubject, but alſo according to the perſon to whom you write, ſo that it would be an endleſs labour to give rules about them. Yet this being a way of writing in which every one is neceſſarily exerciſed, more or leſs, it deſerves a particular regard; nor will it be a difficult thing, at the expence of a little thought and obſervation, to furniſh yourſelf with rules ſufficient to all the variety of occaſions that may occur.'

The Common Pheasant.

NATURAL HISTORY OF THE PHEASANT.

With an Engraving of the common PHEASANT, *beautifully coloured after Nature.*

OF a bird ſo well known in this country, it may ſeem ſuperfluous to give a minute deſcription, after exhibiting its figure in colours. Nature has been ſo profuſe in beauties to this ſpecies that it has ever attracted the notice of the curious, and has in all ages been an object of admiration. The following particulars reſpecting its hiſtory, however, are probably leſs generally known.

Pheaſants were originally brought into Europe from the banks of the Phaſis, a river of Colchis, in Aſia Minor, from whence they ſtill retain their name. Next to the peacock, they are the moſt beautiful of birds, as well for the vivid colour of their plumes, as for their happy mixtures and variety. It is far beyond the power of the pencil to draw any thing ſo gloſſy, ſo bright, or points ſo finely blending into each other. We are told, that when Crœſus, king of Lydia, was ſeated on his throne, adorned with royal magnificence and all the barbarous pomp of eaſtern ſplendour, he aſked Solon if he had ever beheld any thing ſo fine? The Greek philoſopher, no way moved by the objects before him, or taking a pride in his native ſimplicity, replied, that after having ſeen the beautiful plumage of the pheaſant, he could be aſtoniſhed at no other finery. And a greater than this philoſopher, our readers may remember, gives this preference to the works of nature over thoſe of art, by aſſerting, that Solomon, in all his glory, was not arrayed like one of the lillies of the field.

Theſe birds, though ſo beautiful to the eye, are not leſs delicate when ſerved up at the table. Their fleſh is conſidered as the greateſt dainty; and when the old phyſicians ſpoke of the wholeſomeneſs of any viands, they made their compariſon with the fleſh of the pheaſant. However, notwithſtanding all theſe perfections to tempt the curioſity or the palate, the pheaſant has multiplied in its wild ſtate.

A ſpirit of independence ſeems to attend the pheaſant even in captivity. In the woods, the hen-pheaſant lays from eighteen to twenty eggs in a ſeaſon; but in a domeſtic ſtate, ſhe ſeldom lays above ten. In the ſame manner, when wild, ſhe hatches and leads up her brood with patience, vigilance, and courage; but when kept tame, ſhe never ſits well, ſo that a hen is generally her ſubſtitute upon ſuch occaſions: and as for leading her young to their food, ſhe is utterly ignorant where it is to be found; and the young birds ſtarve, if left ſolely to her protection. The pheaſant, therefore, on every account, ſeems better left at large in the woods than reclaimed to priſtine captivity. Its fecundity when wild is ſufficient to ſtock the foreſt; its beautiful plumage adorns it; and its fleſh retains a higher flavour from its unlimited freedom.

However, it has been the aim of late to take theſe birds once more from the woods, and to keep them in places fitted for their reception. Like all others of the poultry kind, they have no great ſagacity, and ſuffer themſelves eaſily to be taken. At night they rooſt upon the higheſt trees of the wood; and by day they come down into the lower brakes and buſhes, where their food is chiefly found. They generally make a kind of flapping noiſe, when they are with the females; and this often apprizes the ſportſman of their retreats. At other times he traces them in the ſnow, and frequently takes them in ſprings. But of all birds they are ſhot moſt eaſily, as they always make a whirring noiſe when they riſe, by which they alarm the gunner, and being a large mark, and flying very ſlow, there is ſcarce any miſſing them.

Pheaſants may be taken in a variety of ways. One method is, to be well

acquainted with their haunts and breeding places; which are generally young, thick, and well grown coppices, free from the diſturbances of cattle, and without a pathway through them; for they are timorous birds. When their haunts are diſcovered, it will next be neceſſary to find out where the brood is. And here it is to be remarked, that pheaſants come out of the wood three times a day to feed in green corn, freſh paſtures, or ſuch like places. The times of coming out are in the morning ſoon after ſunriſe, at noon, and at ſun-ſet. The ſides of the wood, where they may be ſuppoſed to come out, ought then to be carefully watched, and the young ones will be ſeen following the female as a flock of chickens follow the hen. The wood ought alſo to be watched in the evenings, when the noiſe of the cock and hen calling the young ones together will ſoon be heard; and the ſportſman muſt then endeavour to get as near as he can to the place; and being very ſtill and ſilent, he may obſerve their numbers and diſpoſition, and learn how to ſpread his nets, ſo as moſt eaſily to take the whole brood; but if by the leaſt motion they diſcover him, they will all take to their legs, and run to a great diſtance; for they ſeldom riſe on the wing, except when very cloſe frighted. By practice, ſome people have become able to imitate the voice of the old pheaſant, ſo as to be able to call the young ones together to any place that he pleaſes, when the haunts are once found out, and by this means they are eaſily led into the nets.—The beſt time for uſing this call is in the morning and evening; and the note imitated ſhould be that by which they are called out to feed; indeed, by learning to imitate the other notes, they may be brought together at any time of the day. The ſportſman who can make this call, muſt ſhelter himſelf in ſome cloſe place, and begin very ſoftly at firſt; then, if none are near enough to be within hearing, he is gradually to raiſe it louder and louder, and at length he will be anſwered as loud, if any are within hearing, though at a conſiderable diſtance; whereas, if he ſhould ſet up the call too loud at firſt, and any of the birds ſhould happen to be very near, they would be frighted away.

When a pheaſant anſwers, the ſportſman is to creep nearer and nearer, ſtill calling, though not ſo loud; and he will ſtill be anſwered, till at length he will be led by the brood's voice within ſight of it. Then he is to ſpread his net, and to begin to call again, keeping in ſome cloſe and well ſheltered place behind the net; in this place he is to call till the bird approaches; and when he has drawn it under the net, he is to appear ſuddenly, and the bird, riſing up, will thus be caught.

There is another method of taking pheaſants, much quicker than that we have juſt deſcribed; viz. the having a live cock pheaſant to uſe as a ſtale: this bird is to be fixed under the net, and by his crowing he will ſoon entice others in. The ſportſman muſt lie concealed; and when another pheaſant comes in, he is to draw the net over him. Many people take pheaſants in ſpringes or horſehair ſnares: to ſucceed in this, it will be neceſſary to be careful in ſearching out their haunts, and the places by which they go out of the woods into the fields. When theſe are diſcovered, a peg muſt be fixed in the ground at each, and at each peg two ſprings muſt be laid open; the one to take in the legs, the other the head. When the ſpringes are ſet, the ſportſman muſt go into the woods, and get behind the birds in order to fright them with ſome little noiſe, ſuch as ſhall not be enough to raiſe them to the wing, but only to ſet them a running. They will naturally make their way out of the wood, through their accuſtomed paſſes, and be then caught in the ſpringes.

There is another method of taking theſe birds in winter, provided there be ſnow: this muſt be done with a

net made in the form of a caſting net, but with wider meſhes; they may indeed be five inches wide. Some peas or wheat are to be taken out; and the path of the pheaſants being diſcovered, which may eaſily be done by their dung, a pint or thereabout, of corn is to be thrown down in the path in a place marked, ſo that the ſportſman can come to it again. This muſt be done for ſome days, till at length the pheaſants will expect it every day regularly; and all of them that frequent the place are brought together to feed there, and then the net is to be fixed over the place; its top being tied up to ſome bough of a tree, and its bottom fixed down all around, except in one place, where the walk of the pheaſant lies. In this place it muſt be raiſed in the form of an arch, and the entrance muſt be lined with ſeveral rods of hazel; the thick ends of which are to be tied to the net, and the thin ones let into the ſpace covered by it; and thus the pheaſants will eaſily get in by parting the ſmall ends of the ſticks, as fiſh into a wheel, but they will not eaſily get out again. The nets are to be dyed of a ruſſet colour, by laying them in a tan-pit; and they muſt, when planted for this purpoſe, be covered with boughs, ſo that the birds do not diſcover them, and then they will eaſily run into them, and be all taken at once.

When theſe birds are taken young into keeping, they become as familiar as chickens: and when they are deſigned for breeding, they are put together in a yard, five hens to a cock; for this bird, like all of the poultry kind, is very ſalacious. In her natural ſtate the female makes her neſt of dried graſs and leaves: the ſame muſt be laid for her in the pheaſantry, and ſhe herſelf will ſometimes properly diſpoſe them. If ſhe refuſes to hatch her eggs, then a common hen muſt be got to ſupply her place, which taſk ſhe will perform with perſeverance and ſucceſs. The young ones are very difficult to be reared; and they muſt be ſupplied with ants-eggs, which is the food the old one leads them to gather when wild in the woods. To make theſe go the farther, they are to be chopped up with curds or other meat; and the young ones are to be fed with great exactneſs, both as to the quantity and the time of their ſupply. This food is alſo ſometimes to be varied; and woodlice, earwigs, and other inſects, are to make a variety. The place where they are reared muſt be kept extremely clean; their water muſt be changed twice or thrice a-day; they muſt not be expoſed till the dew is off the ground in the morning, and they ſhould always be taken in before ſunſet. When they become adult, they can ſhift for themſelves very well; but they are particularly fond of oats and barley.

In order to increaſe the breed, and make it ſtill more valuable, Longolius teaches us a method that appears very peculiar. The pheaſant is a very bold bird when firſt brought into the yard among other poultry, not ſparing the peacock, nor even ſuch cocks and hens as it can maſter; but after a time it will live tamely among them, and will at laſt be brought to couple with a common hen. The breed thus produced take much ſtronger after the pheaſant than the hen; and in a few ſucceſſions, if they be let to breed with the cock-pheaſant (for the mixture is not barren) there will be produced a ſpecies more tame, ſtronger, and more prolific; ſo that, he adds, it is ſtrange why moſt of our pheaſantries are not ſtocked with birds produced in this manner.

Of the *common pheaſant*, or *Phaſianus Colchicus*, Mr. Latham enumerates ſix varieties. Mr. Donovan ſays, that notwithſtanding the beauty of the common ſpecies, it is inferior in that reſpect to two others, that are alſo found at large in ſome of our woods. The ring and painted pheaſants are far more richly decorated, and theſe may probably be as abundant in future generations as the common pheaſant is at preſent. The

variegated pheaſant is beautiful, and the ſcarcely exampled delicacy of the white kinds, renders it an intereſting variety. The beauty of all theſe varieties is, however, eclipſed by the Argus Pheaſant; and probably, were we better acquainted with the Phaſianus Superbus, and ſome other gigantic Chineſe ſpecies, we might place them among the moſt brilliant of the feathered race.

At what period of time, ſays Mr. Donovan, the pheaſant was introduced into this country, it is impoſſible now to aſcertain. They have, in all probability, been long naturalized in this country. Some of our domeſtic fowls, it is ſuppoſed, were introduced more than two thouſand years ago, Cæſar noticing them. Whether this circumſtance may aſſiſt conjecture, concerning the introduction of the pheaſant, we dare not preſume to determine.

Some OBSERVATIONS *on the* AGITATIONS *of the* LAKE *of* DERWENT WATER *, *and its* FLOATING ISLANDS.

To the Editor of the Univerſal Magazine.

Sir. Keſwick, Oct. 7, 1801.

PASSING through this place with little time to ſpare from purſuits not philoſophical, I can only obtain imperfect information about ſome curious phenomena hitherto but little noticed; by ſome as little regarded as tales of enchantment, and as little underſtood by others as the moving of the waters of the pool of Betheſda. —I mean the agitation of the lake of Derwent water, and its floating iſlands. Pennant ſays, the water of Derwent water is ſubject to violent agitations, and often without any apparent cauſe, as was the caſe this day: the weather was calm, yet the waves ran a great height, and the boat was toſſed violently with what the people in the neighbourhood called a bottom wind. Dalton ſays, Derwent lake is agitated at certain times during a calm ſeaſon, by ſome unknown cauſe. Mr. Croſsthwaite has been aſſiduous in obſerving any circumſtance that might lead to a diſcovery of the cauſe; but his reſult is, that nothing has occurred yet to throw light on the ſubject. He then gives various dates when the lake was diſturbed; among the reſt he ſays,

Aug. 9, 1789. The lake in very great agitation, white breakers upon large waves, &c. without wind.

Oct. 1792. The water much agitated.

My informant, a boatman of the name of Walker, ſays he has frequented the lake for about 27 years, and heard of perhaps 13 iſlands, though previous to that time for 20 years none had appeared. One roſe laſt year, and two this year, which came up within two days of each other. The firſt roſe the 11th of September, and part ſunk the 27th of the ſame month. Sometimes one comes up, and is down again in 24 hours, and ſometimes they ſtay two months. One of them in the year 1798 was 180 yards long, 50 yards wide, and ſtaid at the top of the water ſix weeks. One was pierced, and found ſeven yards thick. They frequently burſt, and are rent ſo wide, that boats can ſail up and land paſſengers at the edges of them, to walk about on the iſland. One was a foot high perpendicular of land above the level of the water. They are connected always by one ſide to the graſſy turf at the edges of the lake. When, within a few days after their firſt appearance, a pole is run three to ſix feet into them, and drawn out again, the air for ſeveral ſeconds bubbles up like a pot boiling violently; a ſmell ariſes like gunpowder, and it

* For a beautiful View of this Lake, ſee our Magazine for Auguſt 1801.

has been ſaid that with a candle you might light a bottle-full that was once collected. I was this day rowed to one, a part of which continued above the water, which gradually deepened all round it, and found it of an oval ſhape, about 10 yards by five yards. The top was a fine firm mud, thick ſet with a young aquatic plant I did not know. We puſhed the boat-hook about four feet into it. The firſt part, about two feet, appeared all mud, then leſs firm, and full of partially-decayed leaves and roots of trees and plants; the water bubbled up for a few ſeconds, about two inches high, occaſioned by the air that followed the hook out.

The riſing of theſe iſlands is always accompanied with a bottom wind; yet the bottom wind appears frequently without them; and generally after a month or ſix weeks of dry weather the lake is ſometimes partially, ſometimes wholly agitated, accompanied by a roaring noiſe (the probable effects of echo in a calm in that ſituation). The waves are not long and rolling, but irregular ſhaped like mountains, 20 inches to two feet in height, like water jumbled in a tub; they frequently ſtrike the boat like a rock, and break in ſpray from head to ſtern, not always when it is perfectly calm, but alſo with a gentle breeze, barely enough to ripple the ſurface. They frequently indicate a change of weather from fair to rain, and the greateſt degree of agitation is always in the deepeſt water.

Having thus minutely deſcribed all the particulars I have time to collect, I ſhall leave it to others to find a better explanation than the following. When we conſider that half the bottom of the lake is covered with a fine mud impervious to air, reſting upon half-putrid vegetable matter; that being attached to the ſloping banks, all air that is generated will endeavour to riſe to the higheſt part, but cannot then get out; that great part of the bottom is a clean bed of pebbles and ſtones pervious to air; that the iſlands begin to riſe generally in from 9 to 12 feet water, and are of conſiderable ſurface; that they have been meaſured 21 feet thick, with clear water under them; and that the moſt violent effects have been in the ſummer months—Is it not probable that the air ſet at liberty by putrefaction is enough to raiſe theſe large maſſes, ſo thick, and ſo little heavier than water itſelf; to contract and expand their extremities enough to give the violent and irregular motion to the ſuperincumbent waters, by their flowing off, their reflux, and their breaking through—and that, more or leſs, whether they riſe to the ſurface, or only part of the way, to find their equilibrium in the ſurrounding fluid? Wiſhing our ignorance of the cauſe of this curioſity of our own country may ſoon be removed, and wiſhing ſucceſs to every inveſtigation of the phænomena of nature, I will conclude with the ſignature of

D. I. P.

ARMY OF EGYPT.

To the Editor of the Univerſal Magazine.

Sir,

YOU are requeſted to publiſh in your Miſcellany the underwritten paragraph, &c. by perſons intereſted in the circumſtance which they are intended to notify. The ordes iſſued by ſir R. Abercromby's directions, after the 21ſt of March, are teſtimonies of his expiring ſentiments, which not having appeared even at this late period, are well worthy of publication.

His majeſty has been graciouſly pleaſed to recompence with the title of *royal German*, the regiment of brigadier general Stuart, which ſo gallantly and critically diſtinguiſhed itſelf in the foreign brigade, in ſuccouring the reſerve, at the awful mo-

ment of doubt, on the plains of Alexandria, upon the ever to be remembered 21ſt of March!—a ſervice emphatically recorded in the ſubjoined laſt general tribute of acknowledgment to the army, dictated by the brave, lamented, and expiring Abercromby!

Copy of General Orders.

'Camp, near Alexandria,
23d of March, 1801.

'Major general Hutchinſon has received directions from the commander in chief, to thank the whole of the troops for their conſpicuous and intrepid conduct in the action of the 21ſt inſtant.—A conduct which has diſmayed an inſolent enemy—has raiſed the glory of their country, and has eſtabliſhed their reputation for ever. To major general Moore, brigadier general Oates, and the reſerve, no acknowledgments are ſufficient. Major general Moore has added to thoſe eſſential ſervices he has already rendered to the army, and the commander in chief ſincerely hopes that both he and brigadier general Oates will be ſoon able to reſume thoſe ſituations, which they have ſuſtained, as honourable to themſelves, as uſeful to the public. The 28th and 42d regiments made the nobleſt ſtand againſt a ſuperior force. Colonel Paget is entitled to the higheſt degree of applauſe. The ſupport given to the reſerve by brigadier general Stuart, and the foreign brigade, was as gallant as it was prompt, and intirely confirmed the fortunate iſſue of that brilliant day. Major general Ludlow will alſo accept the thanks of the general, for the cool, ſteady, and ſoldier-like manner in which they repulſed a column of the enemy.

'Major general Hutchinſon has ſincerely to regret that a wound, though not* a dangerous one, has deprived the army for a moment of the preſence of the commander in chief, who, in all the different actions, was the firſt to lead them to danger and to glory. The army will judge of major general Hutchinſon's feelings by their own; it will, however, diminiſh their regret, when they are informed that the ſuperintending care of the commander in chief ſtill watches over them, and that the moſt ſanguine hopes are entertained that he will ſoon be reſtored to perfect health, and reſume thoſe functions which he has already exerciſed in a manner which entitles him to the gratitude of his country, and the admiration of thoſe gallant men whom he has had the good fortune to command.

'The army has been deprived of the temporary ſervices of brigadier general Hope, by a wound he received in the late action: the general regrets much the abſence of that gallant, judicious, and excellent officer.'

Note.—Brigadier general Stuart being informed that the reſerve in front, particularly the 42d, was extremely preſſed, and the iſſue of the attack much to be apprehended, moved forward with his brigade, from the ſecond line, *without orders*, to their ſupport. His own regiment, on which the ſubſequent charge of the cavalry principally fell, but which it reſiſted with unparalleled diſcipline, loſt, with its lieutenant colonel, thirteen officers, and above two hundred and fifty men, on this memorable day; the fate of which, nevertheleſs, was happily turned by this bold and critical manœuvre.

* This was the hope of the moment.

MEMOIRS OF THE LATE MRS. CRAWFORD.

MRS. Crawford, as an actreſs, was once the chief ornament of the Britiſh ſtage, and poſſeſſed theatrical powers much above the conception of thoſe who only beheld her performances in her declining days. She was the daughter of a medical man at Bath, and was married very early in life to a Mr. Dancer, an obſcure theatrical performer.

After experiencing the viciſſitudes of a theatrical life ſome years in this country, and in Ireland, ſhe arrived in Dublin, and attracted the notice of Barry, one of the very beſt actors of his day, and who even obtained a triumph over Garrick in ſome characters.

Mrs. Dancer engaged the attention of Barry by her perſonal charms, as well as by her great theatrical talents. Having performed under his protection for ſome years, during the life of Mrs Barry, from whom he had been long ſeparated, and whom he had treated with a degree of neglect which too plainly ſhews that they who, on the ſtage, can beſt imitate the tender paſſions, may be totally dead to their influence in private life, Mrs. Dancer was legally inveſted with thoſe domeſtic privileges which ſhe had previouſly enjoyed.

Barry, long before his ſecond marriage, brought Mrs. Dancer to this country, and ſhe made her firſt appearance at the Little Theatre in the Haymarket. She at once manifeſted the powers of a great actreſs, and was eagerly followed by the town. Such merit could not be kept from the metropolis. She ſoon obtained an eſtabliſhment at the Winter Theatre, and became the chief favourite of the public for many years.

Mrs. Barry poſſeſſed a wonderful command over the feelings in tragedy, but ſhe was ſo admirable alſo in comic parts, that it is difficult to ſay in which province of the drama her excellence was moſt conſpicuous.

There was a piercing tenderneſs in ſome of her tones which it was impoſſible for the moſt torpid heart to reſiſt. Her genius was more evident in ſudden flaſhes than in a ſteady luſtre. When ſhe had delivered the words, and expreſſed the paſſions of the poet in ſuch a manner as to excite the ſtrongeſt and moſt agitating ſympathy, ſhe often fell into a careleſs negligence, as if ſhe had nothing more to do, and the ſpectators became as unconcerned as herſelf; but the moment ſhe reſumed her part, ſhe inſtantaneouſly regained all her power over the affections, and, perhaps, was more ſucceſsful in drawing tears from her auditory than any performer, male or female, of her day. Mrs. Barry wanted the grace and dignity of Mrs. Yates, who was the only actreſs of that time that could be placed in any competition with her; but, in the expreſſion of tenderneſs and agonizing grief, Mrs. Barry was greatly ſuperior.

The excellence of Mrs. Barry in comedy, was not leſs powerful. Nothing could be more animated, eaſy, gay, and we may indeed ſay, elegant, than her Roſalind. Her voice in ſinging was charming, and her manner of giving the Cuckoo Song in that character, was the moſt playful, ſprightly, engaging performance of the kind ever known. She was admirable in Mrs. Sullen, and completely ſuſtained the ſpirit, gayety, point, and tenderneſs of the part.

The character of lady Randolph was ſuppoſed to be her *chef d'œuvre* in tragedy, but her Belvidera, and, perhaps, her Alicia, had a more powerful hold upon the heart. In the part of Alicia, indeed, all that Churchhill ſays of the excellence of Mrs Cibber in that part, was ſtrictly applicable to Mrs. Barry.

The fate of Mrs. Barry holds forth a ſtriking leſſon to the female world. At a time of life when 'the hey-day of the blood ought to be tame, and wait upon the judgment,' ſhe was caught by the perſon of Mr. Crawford, an Iriſh bariſter, who was young enough to be her ſon, and who, after breaking her ſpirit, in a few years fell a victim to diſſipation, but not before her talents had ſunk under the influence of dejection, and the force of time.

The theatrical world alſo may derive a uſeful leſſon from her conduct. If her proud conſciouſneſs of her own merit had not betrayed her into caprice and arrogance toward the managers, ſhe might have maintained

her ground in the opinion of the public for many years, and though it was impoſſible for her finally to prevent the introduction of Mrs. Siddons on the London boards, the ungovernable temper of Mrs. Crawford certainly haſtened the appearance of thoſe talents which burſt with meridian luſtre on the metropolis, and which, by the united force of genius and novelty, contributed to throw her into ſhades, from which, at her time of life, ſhe vainly attempted to emerge.

Driven by this powerful rival from the metropolis, ſhe occaſionally performed at provincial theatres, but her ſun had fallen below the horizon, and only a few parting rays gave faint traces of her former ſplendour.

Mrs. Crawford a few years ago made her appearance at Covent Garden Theatre, and thoſe who had formerly admired her, endeavoured to perſuade themſelves that ſhe retained a great portion of her original merit, while they who had not been witneſſes of that merit, derided the praiſes her friends were anxious to beſtow, and treated her fame as the effect of ignorance and bigotry. Indeed the ſentiment that aroſe in the minds of thoſe who knew her in better days was rather a melancholy ſympathy in the decays of nature, than in the diſtreſſes of fiction.

She was an affecting example of what is ſaid by our great moral ſatyriſt,

——Wiſdom's triumph is *well-tim'd retreat*,
As hard a ſcience to the *Fair* as *Great*.

Mrs Crawford died in obſcure apartments in Weſtminſter, Nov. 29, and her remains were interred in a very private manner near thoſe of her huſband, the celebrated Barry, in Weſtminſter abbey.

ORIGIN OF VAUXHALL, RANELAGH, SADLER'S-WELLS, &c.

[From Strutt's Sports and Paſtimes of the People of England.]

TOWARD the cloſe of the ſeventeenth century, the profeſſed muſicians aſſembled at certain houſes in the metropolis, called muſic-houſes, where they performed concerts, conſiſting of vocal and inſtrumental muſic, for the entertainment of the public; at the ſame period there were muſic-booths in Smithfield during the continuance of Bartholomew fair. An author of that time, however, ſpeaks very contemptibly of theſe muſic-meetings, profeſſing that he 'had rather have heard an old barber * ring Whittington's bells upon a cittern, than all the muſic the houſe afforded.' There were alſo muſic-clubs, or private meetings for the practice of muſic, which were exceedingly faſhionable with people of opulence. The muſic-houſes above mentioned were ſometimes ſupported by ſubſcription; and from them originated three places of public entertainment well known in the preſent day, namely, Vauxhall, Ranelagh, and Sadler's-Wells.

Spring Gardens, now better known by the name of Vauxhall Gardens, is mentioned by Aubrey, in his 'Antiquities of Surry;' who informs us, that ſir Samuel Moreland 'built a fine room at Vauxhall, the inſide all of looking-glaſs, and fountains very pleaſant to behold; which,' adds he, 'is much viſited by ſtrangers. It ſtands in the middle of the garden, covered with Cornih ſlate, on the point whereof he placed a *punchanello*, very well carved, which held a dial; but the winds have demoliſhed it.'—'The houſe,' ſays ſir John Hawkins, 'ſeems to have been rebuilt ſince the time that ſir Samuel Moreland dwelt in it; and, there being a large garden be-

* The barbers formerly were often muſicians, and uſually kept a lute, a viol, or ſome other muſical inſtrument in their ſhops, to amuſe their cuſtomers while waiting; at preſent, the newſpaper is ſubſtituted for the inſtrument of muſic.

longing to it, planted with a great number of ſtately trees, and laid out in ſhady walks, it obtained the name of Spring Gardens; and, the houſe being converted into a tavern, or place of entertainment, it was frequented by the votaries of pleaſure.' This account is perfectly conſonant with the following paſſage in a paper of the Spectator: 'We now arrived at Spring Gardens, which is exquiſitely pleaſant at this time of the year*. When I conſidered the fragrancy of the walks and bowers, with choirs of birds that ſung upon the trees, and the looſe tribe of people that walked underneath their ſhades, I could not but look upon the place as a kind of Mahometan paradiſe.' Some time afterward, the houſe and gardens came into the hands of a gentleman whoſe name was Jonathan Tyers, who opened it with an advertiſement of a *ridotto al freſco* †; a term which the people of this country had till then been ſtrangers to. Theſe entertainments were ſeveral times repeated in the courſe of the ſummer, and numbers reſorted to partake of them; which encouraged the proprietor to make his garden a place of muſical entertainment for every evening during the ſummer ſeaſon: to this end he was at great expence in decorating the gardens with paintings; he engaged an excellent band of muſicians, and iſſued ſilver tickets for admiſſion at a guinea each; and, receiving great encouragement, he ſet up an organ in the orcheſtra; and in a conſpicuous part of the gardens erected a ſtatue of Handel, the work of Roubiliac.

The ſucceſs of this undertaking was an encouragement to another of a ſimilar kind. A number of perſons purchaſed the houſe and gardens of the late earl of Ranelagh; they erected a ſpacious building of timber, of a circular form, and within it an organ, and an orcheſtra capable of holding a numerous band of performers. The entertainment of the auditors during the performance is, either walking round the room, or refreſhing themſelves with tea and coffee in the receſſes thereof, which are conveniently adapted for that purpoſe.

We meet with what is ſaid, 'to be a true account of Sadler's-Well,' in a pamphlet publiſhed by a phyſician at the cloſe of the ſeventeenth century. 'The water' ſays he, 'of this well, before the reformation, was very much famed for ſeveral extraordinary cures performed thereby; and was thereupon accounted ſacred, and called Holy-well. The prieſts belonging to the priory of Clerkenwell, uſing to attend there, made the people believe that the virtues of the water proceeded from the efficacy of their prayers: but, at the reformation, the well was ſtopped upon the ſuppoſition that the frequenting of it was altogether ſuperſtitious; and ſo by degrees it grew out of remembrance, and was wholly loſt until then found out; when a gentleman named Sadler, who had lately built a new muſic-houſe there, and being ſurveyor of the highways, had employed men to dig gravel in his garden, in the midſt whereof they found it ſtopped up and covered with an arch of ſtone.' After the deceaſe of Sadler, one Francis Forcer, a muſician and compoſer of ſongs, became occupier of the well and muſic-room; he was ſucceeded by his ſon, who firſt exhibited there the diverſion of rope-dancing and tumbling, which were then performed abroad in the garden. There is now a ſmall theatre appropriated to this purpoſe, furniſhed with a ſtage, ſcenes, and other decorations proper for the repreſentation of dramatic pieces and pantomimes. The diverſions of this place are of various kinds, and form, upon the whole, a ſucceſſion of performances very ſimilar to thoſe diſplayed in former ages, by the gleemen, the minſtrels, and the jugglers.

* The paper is dated May 20th, 1712.

† Or entertainment of Muſic in the open air.

REVIEW OF THE FRENCH REPUBLIC.

PARIS, November 23.

IT is with the livelieſt ſatisfaction that the government preſents to the nation the picture of the ſtate of the republic during the year which has lately cloſed. Every thing in its internal and external ſituation has aſſumed a new aſpect, and on whatever ſide it is contemplated, it offers a long proſpect of hope and felicity.

In the Weſt and in the South the remnant of numerous bodies of brigands infeſted the roads and deſolated the fields, while they were either altogether inviſible to the tooops which purſued them, or were protected againſt them by that terror which they inſpired into their victims. If ſometimes they fell into the hands of their purſuers, and were brought into a tribunal of juſtice, their audacity ſtruck terror into their accuſers, and the witneſſes who were to prove their guilt; nor did the judges and juries eſcape from the fear their preſence excited. From the hands of juſtice theſe monſters eſcaped unpuniſhed, only to renew their former atrocities.

Againſt this peſt, deſtructive of the order of ſociety, it was neceſſary to employ other arms than could be found in thoſe ſlow and gradual forms of procedure, which public juſtice employs againſt the iſolated evil ſpirits who conceal themſelves from puniſhment in ſilence and ſolitude Special tribunals were created, whoſe more rapid and certain activity was capable of reaching and confounding them. Flagrant offenders have been ſeized; witneſſes have ceaſed to be intimidated; judges have obeyed their conſcience; ſociety has been avenged of its enemies. Thoſe who have eluded the purſuit of juſtice now fly from one place of concealment to another, and the republic daily diſcharges from its boſom the remnant of thoſe free-booters, who have ſo long diſturbed its repoſe.

In the mean time, innocence has had nothing to fear; the ſecurity of the citizens has not been interrupted by the meaſures adopted to puniſh their oppreſſors, and the ſiniſter preſages with which many perſons wiſhed to terrify the friends of liberty, have only been realized againſt crimes.

From the month of Floreal, in the year 9, to the 1ſt Vendemiaire, in the year 11, ſeven hundred and twenty-four ſentences have been pronounced by the ſpecial tribunals. Of theſe only nineteen have been reverſed by the tribunal of caſſation, on the ground of their incompetency. They cannot therefore be with any reaſon accuſed either of exceeding their powers, or of invading the courſe of ordinary juſtice.

The government in the firſt days of its inſtitution, proclaimed liberty of conſcience. This ſolemn act calmed the ſpirit of thoſe whom unjuſtifiable rigour had terrified. Since that period the termination of religious diſſenſions has been announced, and meaſures have actually been concerted with the ſovereign pontiff of the catholic church, to reunite in the ſame ſentiments the profeſſors of a common faith. At the ſame time a magiſtrate who has been charged with whatever concerns the forms of worſhip, is occupied about the rights of all; he has collected in conferences held with the Calviniſtic Lutheran miniſters that information neceſſary for preparing regulations, which will ſecure to all the liberty which is their right, and the publicity which the intereſt of ſocial order requires to be granted to them. Similar meaſures will provide for the maintenance of every different ſect: nothing ſhall be left to the diſpoſition of their miniſters, and the public treaſury ſhall in no caſe be overcharged.

If ſome citizens have been alarmed by idle rumours, let ſuch apprehenſions be diſpelled. The government has done every thing to reſtore public confidence, but it has done nothing to offend principles, or deſtroy the independence of opinion.

Continental peace has put an end to whatever anxiety and vain terrors ſtill exiſted in the minds of citizens.

Already bleſſed with all the happineſs they expected, the citizens will repoſe on the boſom of the conſtitution, and to it will unreſervedly attach their deſtiny.

Enlightened and faithful adminiſtrators have zealouſly ſeconded this diſpoſition of the public mind; almoſt every where it appears by their reports that public authority has experienced nothing but the readieſt obedience, love, and gratitude.

Hence there exiſts in the government that ſecurity which conſtitutes its ſtrength. It entertained no more doubt of public opinion than of its own ſentiments, and hence it dares to appeal to it without any dread of the reſult. Hence a prince, ſprung from the blood of thoſe ſovereigns who long reigned over France, paſſed through our departments, had his reſidence in the capital, received from the go-

vernor the honours due to his crown, and from the citizens all thoſe marks of reſpect which one people owes to another in the perſon of him who is called to govern them.—No ſuſpicion for a moment interrupted the tranquillity of the government, no rumour diſturbed the repoſe of the people. Every where the countenance of the people diſplayed the appearance of a nation bleſſed with liberty, and manifeſted thoſe affections which characteriſe a nation diſtinguiſhed by their hoſpitality. Even ſtrangers, the enemies of the country, have ſeen that attachment to the republic is deeply implanted in the hearts of Frenchmen, and that there it already poſſeſſes all the maturity which could reſult from the experience of ages. The return of warriors into the territories of the republic has been followed by feſtes and by triumphs. Thoſe warriors, ſo formidable in the field, have mixed with their brothers and their friends, happy in the exiſtence of public juſtice, enjoying without haughtineſs the gratitude they ſo well deſerved, and ſhewing themſelves by the ſtricteſt diſcipline worthy of the victories they have obtained.

In the war which we had ſtill to ſupport, the events which had taken place have exhibited a mixture of good and ill ſucceſs. Reduced to combat the navy of England with unequal ſtrength, our marine diſplayed its courage in the Mediterranean, covered with the enemy's fleets. It has on the ocean recalled ſome traces of its ancient glory. By a glorious reſiſtance it aſtoniſhed the people of England aſſembled on the ſhores to be only the witneſſes of the defeat of their countrymen; and, had not peace been concluded, a hope might have been entertained that it would have been able to avenge its paſt misfortunes, and repair thoſe faults which had produced them.

In Egypt the ſoldiers of the army of the Eaſt have ſurrendered, but they have ſurrendered more to the circumſtances in which they were placed than to the Engliſh and Turkiſh arms. They would certainly have conquered if they had fought with union. At length they return to their country! They return to it with the glory they have acquired by four years of courage and of labours. In Egypt they have left recollections never to be forgotten. Recollections which may one day give birth to the reſtoration of arts and ſocial inſtitutions. Hiſtory, at leaſt, will not fail to record what efforts the French have made to introduce into that country the knowledge and civilization of Europe. It will tell by what efforts they conquered it, by what wiſdom and by what diſcipline they ſo long preſerved it, and, perhaps, it will deplore the loſs of it as a new calamity to the human race. Twenty-eight thouſand Frenchmen at firſt entered Egypt to conquer it; others have been ſent ſince that time to reinforce them at different periods, but the whole number of thoſe who have returned is nearly equal to the number of thoſe originally employed in the expedition.—Twenty-three thouſand men return to France, after Egypt has been evacuated, without including the foreigners who have followed their fortune. Thus, four campaigns, numerous conflicts and the diſeaſes of the country, have not carried off a fifth part of the army of the Eaſt.

Since the concluſion of the continental war, the government has been employed in making every reform in the ſtate of the army which circumſtances would permit. A conſiderable number of men have got their diſcharge; theſe diſcharges have been given without favour, without preference, and in an order irrevocably fixed. Thoſe who firſt took up arms in compliance with the laws of requiſition, firſt obtained their diſcharge.

To fill up the vacancies which theſe diſcharges will occaſion, it will be neceſſary to call upon the conſcripts of the years 9 and 10, and in this ſeſſion the project of a law will be propoſed to the legiſlative body, to place them at the diſpoſition of the government; but the government will only call upon ſuch a number as may be ſufficient to keep up the army on the peace eſtabliſhment.

We ſhall enjoy peace, but the war will leave us a burthen which for a conſiderable time will preſs on our finances. To defray the expences which could neither be foreſeen nor calculated, to recompence the ſervices of our defenders, to reanimate the works of our arſenals and our ports, to reſtore a marine to France, to create anew all that the war has deſtroyed, and all that time has conſumed, to bring, in a word, all our eſtabliſhments to that point of perfection which both the grandeur and the ſecurity of the republic require; to accompliſh all theſe various objects, cannot be effected without an increaſe of our revenues. The revenues will indeed of themſelves increaſe with peace, and the government will manage theſe revenues with the ſtricteſt economy. But if the natural increaſe of the revenues, aided by

the ſtricteſt economy, do not prove ſufficient for the public wants, the nation itſelf will judge of theſe wants, and the government will find it to be their duty to propoſe the reſources which circumſtances may render neceſſary.

In the whole courſe of the year 9, a few rare communications have with difficulty exiſted between the mother country and the colonies. Guadaloupe preſerves a remnant of culture and proſperity, but the ſovereignty of the republic received more than one outrageous violation. In the year 8, one agent had the ſole command in that iſland: he was baniſhed by a faction. Three agents ſucceeded him, two of whom deported a third, and replaced him by a perſon of their own choice. Another died, and the two ſurvivors inveſted themſelves with all the powers which three were deſtined to exerciſe. Under this muti'ated and unequal adminiſtration, anarchy and deſpotiſm univerſally prevail d. The coloniſts accuſed them, and imputed to them every error and every crime. The government endeavoured to organize a new adminiſtration. A captain-general, a prefect, a commiſſary-general, ſubordinate to each other, but mutually ſucceeding each other if circumſtances ſhould require it, preſent an arrangement of power which is perhaps, in ſome reſpects, liable to cenſure, but contains no ſources of rivalſhip which can arreſt its activity, or paralyſe its exertions. This adminiſtration ſtill exiſts, and we ſhall ſoon be enabled to determine whether it will juſtify the hopes which have been conceived of it.

Since his arrival, the captain general has had to combat the ſpirit of faction, and he has thought it his duty to ſend to France thirteen ind vidua's, who had been active in promoting the diviſions of the colony, and in favouring the deportations. The government has conſidered the preſence of ſuch men dangerous in France, and has given orders that they be ſent to any of the colonies they may think proper, with the exception of Guadaloupe.

At St. Domingo, irregular acts have endangered ſubordination. Under equivocal appearances, the government has wiſhed to view only an ignorance which confounds names and things, which uſurps when it believes that it only obeys. But a fleet and army which are on the eve of ſetting out from the ports of Europe, will ſoon diſſipate every cloud, and St. Domingo will return entire under the laws of the republic.

At St. Domingo and at Guadaloupe there are no ſlaves:—every thing is free and every thing will remain free. Wiſdom in the proceſs of time will reſtore order, and re eſtabliſh culture and labour in thoſe ſettlements.

At Martinique there will be different principles. Martinique has preſerved ſlavery, and ſlavery will there be retained. It has coſt humanity too much yet to try in this ſmall diſtrict of the earth a new revolution.

Guiana proſpers under an active and vigorous adminiſtration. It will proſper ſtill more under the reign of peace, and aggrandiſed by a new territory which is favourable to culture, and promiſes a vaſt increaſe of riches.

The iſles of France and Reunion have continued faithful to the mother country, in the midſt of factions and under an adminiſtration feeble, uncertain, ſuch as chance preſented, and which received from the government no impulſe or ſupport. Theſe colonies, ſo important, are ſecured. They now fear only leſt the mother country, by giving liberty to the blacks, ſhould endanger the ſafety of the white inhabitants.

The order eſtabliſhed in the former year, in the receipt of the revenues, and the diſtribution of the expences, left very little room for improvement in this department. An active ſuperintendance has brought to light paſt delapidations and preſent abuſes. The culprits have been denounced in the public opinion, and before the tribunals. The mode of management has been concentrated, and hence greater energy has been introduced into adminiſtration, and more celerity into the means of obtaining the general reſults. Meaſures have been taken to accelerate ſtill farther the payment of the public revenues, to ſecure greater regularity in meeting the national expenditure, and to render reſponſibility in this department at once more ſimple and more active. The practices of thoſe guilty of forgery have arrived at a height which excites alarm in ſociety. By means of falſe titles they have deceived thoſe appointed to liquidate the public debt, and have thus embezzled the national treaſure. To prevent, for the future, ſuch abuſes, and ſuch crimes, the government has determined that liquidations made in the offices of miniſters ſhall be ſubjected to a new trial, and ſhall not be allowed to be a debt of the republic till they are verified in the council of adminiſtration. The miniſter of finance has now the whole charge of

the labours which the receipt of the revenue and the ſyſtem of contribution require. The office of another miniſter is to labour directly in what is connected with the depot of the public treaſure, and his perſonal reſponſibility ſecures its inviolability. The ſinking fund has received a more complete organization. A ſingle individual has the management of it, but four adminiſtrators ſurvey the whole details, and who are at the ſame time the adviſers, and, if it be neceſſary, the cenſors of the agent whom they are bound to aſſiſt.

The moſt precious property of the republic, the national foreſts, have been placed under the guidance of an adminiſtration who, confined wholly to this object, will exerciſe in the greateſt activity, the moſt accurate knowledge, and the moſt watchful inſpection.

Public inſtruction has made conſiderable progreſs at Paris, and in ſeveral of the departments. In almoſt all the others it is languiſhing, or nearly extinct. If we do not ſet out on the path which has been traced, there will ſoon be only a few ſcattered lights on detached points, and ignorance and barbariſm cannot fail to ſucceed. A ſyſtem of public inſtruction more concentrated has employed the deliberations of the government. Primary ſchools eſtabliſhed in one or more communes, if local circumſtances admit of this aſſociation, will preſent generally to the children of citizens that elementary knowledge, without which man is a mere blind agent, dependant on every thing that ſurrounds him.

The conductors of theſe ſchools ſhall have an allowance furniſhed by the communes, and a ſeparate allowance, compoſed of the retribution agreed upon by the relations who ſhall be in a ſituation to afford it. Some other uſeful functions will be aſſigned to theſe conductors, if they can be made conſiſtent with their primary and neceſſary function.

In the ſecondary ſchools there ſhall be taught the elements of the ancient languages, of geography, hiſtory, and arithmetic. Theſe ſchools ſhall be formed either by individual exertions recognized by the public adminiſtration, or by a meeting of the communes. They ſhall be encouraged by gifts of public edifices, by gratuitous places in the ſuperior ſchools granted to pupils diſtinguiſhing themſelves; and, in a word, by prizes beſtowed on a number determined by the profeſſors, who ſhall have furniſhed the greateſt number of pupils to the ſuperior ſchool.

Thirty ſchools, under the appellation of Lyceums, ſhall be formed, and ſupported at the expence of the republic, in the principal cities which, by their ſituation and the manners of their inhabitants, are moſt favourable to the ſtudy of ſcience and literature. There the learned languages, geography, hiſtory, logic, natural philoſophy, geometry, mathematics, &c. will be taught. In ſome of them the modern languages will alſo be taught, the uſe of which is pointed out by their ſituation. Six thouſand pupils of the country ſhall be diſtributed in theſe thirty eſtabliſhments, maintained and educated at the expence of the republic. Three thouſand ſhall be the children of ſoldiers, or of public functionaries who have done ſervice to the ſtate. Three thouſand others ſhall be choſen in the ſecondary ſchools, according to examinations formally appointed, and in a number proportioned to the population of the departments who are to furniſh them.

The pupils of the united departments ſhall be called into the ſchools of the interior, ſhall there be habituated to our cuſtoms and our manners, imbibe our maxims, and carry back to their families the love of our inſtitutions and our laws. —The other pupils admitted muſt be maintained and inſtructed at the expence of their relations. Six millions ſhall be annually allotted for the formation and ſupport of theſe eſtabliſhments, for the ſubſiſtence and inſtruction of the pupils of the country, for the ſalaries of the profeſſors, and for the pay of the directors and reſponſible agents.

The ſpecial ſchools ſhall form the laſt ſtage of public inſtruction. Several of theſe are already conſtituted, and will preſerve their preſent forms. Others will be eſtabliſhed in the moſt convenient ſtations, and for profeſſions for which they are judged moſt neceſſary. Such is a ſketch of the ſyſtem which ſeems to the government to unite the greateſt advantages and to promiſe the greateſt chance of ſucceſs, and which in the preſent ſeſſion it will propoſe to the legiſlative body in the form of a projet of a law. Its ſuperintendance will be ſufficient for 30 eſtabliſhments, while a greater number would eſcape its care and its obſervation. But above all, a greater number would not find at preſent thoſe diſtinguiſhed profeſſors who give reputation to ſchools, nor of directors capable of maintaining in them a ſevere diſcipline, nor of adviſers ſufficiently enlightened to direct their adminiſtrations.

Thirty lyceums wiſely diſtributed over the territories of the republic will, by their influence, embrace its whole extent, will univerſally diffuſe the fame of their knowledge, and their ſucceſs will attract the attention of foreigners, and will be to them what lately ſome famous ſchools in Germany and England, and what ſome celebrated univerſities were to us, and which, viewed at a diſtance, commanded the admiration and reſpect of Europe.

The civil code was laſt year announced at the deliberations of the legiſlative body, but the work encreaſed under the hands of thoſe who were preparing it. The tribunal were called upon to render it more perfect, and enriched by their obſervations, it is ſubmitted in the council of ſtate to the ſevereſt diſcuſſion. All the parts of which it is compoſed will be ſucceſſively preſented for the ſanction of the legiſlative body: thus this important work will be ſubjected to every proof, and will be the reſult of every kind of illumination. Workſhops multiply in houſes of labour and correction, and labour baniſhes from them that idleneſs which adds ſtill more to the corruption of the corrupted. In many of the departments, no beggars are to be found. The hoſpitals are gradually riſing from that ſtate of diſtreſs which conſtituted the ſhame of the nation, and the grief of the government. Already private beneficence encreaſes their ſtores and atteſts the return of thoſe ſentiments of benevolence which pernicious laws and protractive miſery ſeemed to have baniſhed for ever. In all the principal circles of communication, the high roads either are, or will ſpeedily be repaired. The produce of the tax for keeping them in repair experiences a progreſſive encreaſe. The moſt important of all the canals is already dug at the public expence, and a number of others will ſoon be formed by the induſtry of individuals. Literature and the ſciences have received every poſſible degree of ſupport and encouragement which circumſtances would permit. Plans have been formed for the embelliſhment of Paris, and already ſome of them are carrying into execution. An individual aſſociation, formed by zeal ſtill more than by intereſt, have conſtructed bridges, which will open communications either extremely uſeful, or altogether neceſſary. Another aſſociation will furniſh to the city a canal and ſalubrious water, which are ſtill wanting to the capital. The departments will not be neglected. On every ſide enquiries are made what works are neceſſary to adorn them, or to render them more fruitful. Collections of paintings are deſtined to form muſeums in the principal cities. The view of them will inſpire the young citizens with a taſte for the arts, and will arreſt the curioſity of travellers.

At the moment when general peace is about to reſtore to the arts and to commerce all their activity, the duty moſt dear to the government is to enlighten their path, to encourage their labours, and to remove every obſtacle which might retard their career. It will invite, for the accompliſhment of theſe great intereſts, every diviſion of knowledge; it will claim all the counſels of experience; it will fix upon men for conſultation, who by their actual knowledge, by their inflexible probity, by their diſintereſted views, ſhall be worthy of the public confidence and eſteem. Happy if the national genius ſecond its ardour and its zeal, and if by its cares the proſperity of the republic one day equal its triumph and its glory.

In our external relations, the government will not fear to diſcloſe its principles and its maxims. Fidelity to our allies, reſpect to their independence, and frankneſs and ſincerity with our enemies—ſuch has been the policy.

Batavia complained that its form of government was not ſuited to it. But for ſeveral years this conſtitution governed it. The principle of the government is, that nothing is more fatal to the happineſs of ſtates than the inſtability of their conſtitutions, and when the Batavian directory made an application to it on the expediency of a change, it always appealed to this principle. At length, however, the Batavian people wiſhed to change their conſtitution, and they have adopted a new form of government. The government has acknowledged this conſtitution, and it was its duty to give this acknowledgement, becauſe the conſtitution was framed according to the wiſh of an independent people.

Twenty-five thouſand Frenchmen were to remain in Batavia, according to the terms of the treaty of the Hague, till the concluſion of a general peace; the Batavians deſired that theſe forces might be reduced, and in virtue of a recent convention, they have been reduced to ten thouſand men.

Helvetia has preſented during the year 9, the ſpectacle of a people torn in pieces by fear, and each one of theſe invoking the power, and ſometimes the arms of France.

Our troops have received orders to re-enter the territories of the republic. Four thouſand men only remain in Helvetia, agreeably to the wiſh of all the local authorities, who have begged for their ſtay.

Helvetia has often ſubmitted to the chief conſul projects of organization; ſhe has often requeſted his advice; he has always recalled her to her independence. 'Remember only (he has ſometimes ſaid) the courage and the virtues of your fathers; have an organization ſimple as their manners. Think of thoſe different religions, of thoſe different languages which have their limits marked out; think of thoſe mountains which ſeparate you; think of the many recollections exacted by thoſe natural boundaries, and let there remain an impreſſion of all theſe things in your organization; above all, for the example of the nations of Europe, preſerve liberty and equality to that nation which beſt taught them to be independent and free.

Theſe were only counſels, and they have been coldly liſtened to. Helvetia remains without a pilot in the midſt of tempeſts. The miniſter of the republic has acted only as a mediator between the hoſtile parties, and the general of our troops refuſed all the factions indiſcriminately the aſſiſtance of his troops.

The Ciſalpine and Liguria have at laſt agreed upon their organization. In the tranſactions which muſt accompany the firſt nominations both are afraid of the revival of rivalſhip and hatred. They have, therefore teſtified an inclination that the chief conſul would charge himſelf with theſe nominations.

He will try to reconcile the wiſh of theſe two republics, ſo dear to France, with the more ſacred duties which his ſituation impoſes upon him.

Lucca has expiated in the miſeries of a proviſional government the errors which drew down upon it the indignation of the French people. It is now employed in framing a cubinitive organization.

The king of Tuſcany, tranquil upon his throne, is recognized by ſeveral of the great powers, and ſoon will be ſo by all the reſt. Four thouſand Frenchmen garriſon Leghorn on his account, and remain there only till he has organized a national army.

Piedmont forms our 27th military diviſion, and under a milder government forgets the evils of a long anarchy.

The holy father, ſovereign of Rome, poſſeſſes his ſtates in their integrity. Paſaro, Fanon, and Caſtel St. Leono, which had been occupied by the Ciſalpine troops, have been reſtored to him.

Fifteen hundred Frenchmen remain in the citadel of Ancona, to ſecure the communications with the army of the South.

After the peace of Luneville, France might have fallen with all her weight upon the kingdom of Naples, to puniſh the ſovereign for his unprovoked infraction of the treaties, and to make him repent of the inſults which the French had received in the port of Naples. But the government conſidered it'elf avenged when it might have taken vengeance; it felt no longer but the deſire and the neceſſity of peace; to agree to peace it required only the port of Otranto, become neceſſary to its deſigns in the Eaſt after the taking of Malta by the Engliſh.

Paul I. was attached to France; he wiſhed for the peace of Europe; above all, he was anxious for the liberty of the ſeas. His great ſoul was moved by the pacific ſentiments which the chief conſul had manifeſted: he was ſtill more ſtruck by our ſucceſſes and our victories. Hence the firſt ties which attached him to the republic.

Eight thouſand Ruſſians have been made priſoners in fighting with the allies; but the miniſter who then governed England had refuſed to exchange them againſt French priſoners. The government was enraged at this refuſal. The chief conſul reſolved to reſtore to their country theſe brave men, whom their allies had deſerted: he reſtored them in a manner worthy of the republic, worthy of them, and of their ſovereign. Hence cloſer ties, and a nearer approach to cordiality.

All on a ſudden, Ruſſia, Denmark, and Sweden, united; a coalition was formed to guarantee the liberty of the ſeas; Hanover was occupied by the Pruſſian troops; vaſt projects were in contemplation: but Paul I. ſuddenly died.

Bavaria is haſtening to revive the relations which connected her with France. This important ally has ſuſtained great loſſes on the left bank of the Rhine. It is both the intereſt and the deſire of France that he ſhould receive, on the right bank, a juſt and full indemnity.

Much diſcuſſion has taken place at Ratiſbon with regard to the execution of the treaty of Luneville, but none of theſe diſputes are immediately intereſting to the public. The peace of Luneville, concluded with the emperor, and ratified by the diet, has irrevocably fixed the intereſts of France in this quarter. If the republic

ſtill takes a part in the diſcuſſions at Ratiſbon, it is only from having guaranteed the ſtipulations in the ſeventh article of the treaty, and to preſerve the juſt equilibrium of power in Germany.

Peace with Ruſſia has been ſigned. Nothing will henceforth diſturb the relations of theſe two great nations, who, with ſo many reaſons to love each other, have not one to excite jealouſy or fear, and whom nature has placed at the two extremities of Europe, to preſerve the balance of the north and the ſouth.

The Porte, reſtored to a ſenſe of its true intereſts, and its inclination for France, has returned to its moſt ancient and moſt faithful ally.

With the United States of America all difficulties have been ſmoothed.

Finally, preliminaries of peace have been ratified with England.

The peace with England was the reſult of long negociations, ſupported by a ſyſtem of war, which, though ſlow in its preparations, was infallible in its effects.

Already the greateſt number of her allies had abandoned her. Hanover, the only poſſeſſion of her ſovereign on the continent, was always in the power of Pruſſia. The Porte, menaced by our important poſitions on the Adriatic, had opened a ſeparate negociation.

Portugal remained to her. Long ſubject to the influence, and confined excluſively to the commerce of England, Portugal was in truth but a province of Great Britain. It was here that Spain was to find a compenſation for the ceſſion of the iſland of Trinidad. Her army advanced; a diviſion of the troops of the republic encamped upon the frontiers of Portugal, to ſupport her operations. But after the firſt hoſtilities, and a few ſlight ſkirmiſhes, the Spaniſh miniſter ratified ſeparately the treaty of Badajos. From that moment it was eaſy to foreſee the loſs of Trinidad to Spain; from that moment, in truth, England conſidered it as a poſſeſſion which ſhe had definitively acquired, and from thenceforth rejected from the negociation every thing which could ſuppoſe the poſſible reſtitution of it.

Before ratifying the ſeparate treaty with Portugal, government communicated to the cabinet of Madrid this reſolution of England.

England refuſed with the ſame inflexibility the ceſſion of Ceylon; but the Batavian republic will find in the many poſſeſſions which are reſtored to her the re-eſtabliſhment of her commerce and her power.

France has maintained the intereſts of her allies as forcibly as her own; ſhe has even been ready to ſacrifice greater advantages which ſhe might have obtained for herſelf; but it was always neceſſary to ſtop at the point where negociation became impoſſible. Her exhauſted allies could no longer furniſh reſources for the continuation of the war, and the poſſeſſions, the reſtitution of which was refuſed them by England, were not to be compared to the chances of a new campaign, and all the calamities with which they might have been overwhelmed.

Thus in every quarter of the globe the republic has none but friends or allies, and every where her commerce reſumes its ancient channels.

In the whole courſe of the negociation, the preſent miniſter of England has ſhewn a ſincere anxiety to put an end to the miſeries of war; the Engliſh people have embraced the peace with enthuſiaſm. The rancour of rivalſhip is extinct; there remains only the emulation of great actions and uſeful enterprizes.

The government had ſet its ambition in replacing France in her natural relations with all nations; it will now place its glory in maintaining the great work it has accompliſhed, and in perpetuating a peace which will enſure the happineſs of France and the happineſs of humanity.

(Signed) BONAPARTE.

IMPERIAL PARLIAMENT.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

Thurſday, November 11.

LORD Hobart moved the order of the day, for taking into conſideration the ſervices of the military in Egypt. In moving for a vote of thanks to ſir J. Hutchinſon, and the officers and ſoldiers under his command, his lordſhip ſaid, it was not neceſſary to detain the houſe, by enlarging upon the events of the campaign, which he had conducted with ſo much glory and ſucceſs, as thoſe events muſt be ſufficiently ſtrong in the recollection of every noble lord preſent. Whatever difference of opinion any of his meaſures might ſeem calculated to excite at the time of their propoſal, the reſult had uniformly been ſuch as to reflect the higheſt honour on the extent of his foreſight, and the correctneſs of his judgment. It was a ſubject of ſingular ſatis-

faction, that in every inſtance where Britiſh forces had an opportunity of acting in that quarter of the world, from the deciſive battle of the Nile, and the heroic defence of St. Jean d'Acre, to the ſurrender of Alexandria, their exertions were productive of the higheſt honour to themſelves, and of the moſt eſſential advantage to their country. Before putting the motion, which he had in his hand, he felt himſelf called upon to give his tribute of praiſe to the activity diſplayed by the marquis Welleſley, the governor general in India, in diſpatching a part of the gallant army in that country up the Red Sea, in order to co-operate in the reduction of Egypt. His lordſhip then moved, That the thanks of the houſe ſhould be communicated to lieutenant general ſir J. H. Hutchinſon, for the zeal and ability with which he had conducted the Britiſh forces ſerving under his command, and by which the honour of the Britiſh nation has been ſuſtained, and additional luſtre reflected upon the Britiſh arms.

Lord Nelſon, in ſeconding the motion, expatiated upon the vaſt extent of the plan entertained by Bonaparte when he landed in Egypt. That plan he did not conceive to be fruſtrated by the deſtruction of his fleet; for, on learning that event, he thanked the goddeſs of fortune, that ſhe had granted him his utmoſt wiſh, which was, the ſafe debarkation of his army. It was, no doubt, his intention to have founded an empire, which ſhould extend from the banks of the Nile to the ſhores of Conſtantinople; and which, being once conſolidated, might afford the means of expelling the Britiſh from India. His troops had been vainly called invincible. That appellation, however, ſhowed the confidence he placed in them. They had, indeed, been accuſtomed to beat all that oppoſed them; but they were beaten in their turn when they entered the liſts with Britiſh ſoldiers. His lordſhip ſat down with expreſſing his moſt cordial concurrence in the vote propoſed.

The motion was put and carried, *nem. diſſ.* and ordered to be communicated to ſir J. Hutchinſon by the lord chancellor.

A vote of thanks was then paſſed in favour of the general and ſubaltern officers ſerving in the army in Egypt; and a reſolution adopted, highly approving of the zeal, diſcipline, and bravery, diſplayed by the non-commiſſioned officers and privates.

Lord Hobart then roſe, and, in conſequence of the abſence of lord St. Vincent from indiſpoſition, moved ſimilar votes and reſolutions to lord Keith, and the officers and ſeamen under his command; and alſo to admiral Blanket, and the officers and ſeamen of the ſquadron in the Red Sea.

Lord Nelſon and the duke of Clarence ſaid each a few words in praiſe of the exertions of our naval forces on the coaſt of Egypt, after which the reſpective motions were adopted, *nem. diſſ.*

Friday, November 13.

CONVENTION WITH RUSSIA.

The order of the day for taking this ſubject into conſideration being read,

Lord Holland roſe to requeſt that ſome of the noble lords on the other ſide of the houſe would ſtate, whether the courts of Sweden and Denmark had acceded to the convention.

The lord chancellor ſaid, that they had expreſſed their readineſs to accede to the treaty on the table.

Lord Darnley then roſe, and ſaid, that never upon any occaſion did he preſent himſelf to their lordſhips notice with more heartfelt ſatisfaction than in propoſing, as he ſhould now do, an addreſs to the throne, in approbation of the convention by which our differences with the Northern powers were happily and honourably adjuſted. The principle, that free ſhips make free goods was abandoned. The articles contraband of war were defined between us and Ruſſia, as they had already been defined in the commercial treaty of 1797, and without laying down any general principle for extending the ſame indulgence to other powers. On the contrary, it was expreſly ſtipulated, that it ſhould make no alteration in previouſly exiſting treaties, and Sweden and Denmark were invited to accede to the preſent inſtrument under the ſame reſtrictions as formerly. The reaſon of the indulgence in favour of Ruſſia was obvious; ſhe had no commercial marine, and the habits of her population, and the bar oppoſed by the elements to her communication with the ocean for a great part of the year, did not afford her the proſpect of ever having any which could lead us to apprehend much injury from the conceſſion. The caſe was very different with regard to Sweden, and as ſuch it had wiſely been provided for. The right of blockade had been granted to us in the utmoſt extent of our claim; the right of ſearch had alſo been admitted under the obſervance of ſuch regulations, where neutral veſſels were under the convoy of ſhips of war, as no reaſonable man could object to. He, for his part, highly approved of the denial of this right to priva-

teers, as it tended to limit a ſort of piratical warfare, which would conſtitute a ſource of perpetual diſcord. His lordſhip concluded with moving an addreſs, approving of the terms of the convention, as completely ſecuring the undiſturbed naval rights of the Britiſh nation.

Lord Cathcart took a review of the nature of the Northern confederacy, and the effects of their eſtabliſhing thoſe pretenſions, which had been firſt aimed at by the armed neutrality, in 1780, muſt neceſſarily have had upon the naval force of this country. He conſidered that, by the preſent convention, they had abandoned thoſe pretenſions, that we had ſecured thoſe rights we had ſo long enjoyed, and that the queſtion was now finally put to reſt; therefore it was with the greateſt ſatisfaction that he ſeconded the motion for the addreſs.

Lord Grenville prefaced a ſpeech, which he was upward of two hours in delivering, by declaring, that, although he could not accede to the motion, it was not his intention to vote againſt it. His lordſhip divided his ſpeech into five heads, namely, the queſtion of free ſhips making free goods; that of contraband goods in peace and war; the trading of neutral ſhips on the coaſts and to the colonies of an enemy; that of a port being in a ſtate of blockade; and that of the ſearching of neutral ſhips when under convoy. On theſe ſeveral heads his lordſhip dwelt for a conſiderable time, and contended, that, from the wording of the treaty, concluſions might be drawn, that this country had made conceſſions in every one of theſe particulars; he did not think it was intended to be ſo underſtood even by Ruſſia; but it was the ambiguity of the wording which he objected to, and the more particularly, as the different articles were literally tranſcribed from the *projet* of the armed neutrality in 1780; whereas, in his opinion, the treaty with Ruſſia in 1797 might have been renewed without any alteration whatever. Upon the whole, he conſidered that almoſt every article of the convention, as it ſtood at preſent, might be conſtrued to the diſadvantage of this country, and therefore he could not join in the propoſed addreſs.

The lord chancellor replied to all the arguments which had been made uſe of by the noble lord: he perſiſted we had by this treaty ſecured all thoſe great advantages for which we had entered into the war; this was his firm opinion, and being ſo, he ſhould give his vote for the addreſs accordingly.

Lord Holland declared he meant to give his ſupport to the addreſs, though upon very different ſentiments than thoſe of the learned lord, for he did not think we had ſucceeded, but rather agreed with a great deal that had been ſaid by the noble lord (Grenville); but he looked upon it as a kind of confirmation of peace, and upon that account he was friendly to it.

Lord Nelſon could not give a ſilent vote upon a queſtion which was of ſo much conſequence to the navy of England. In his opinion, this treaty, by putting an end to the pretence that free ſhips made free goods, might be conſidered as the ſalvation of the country: rather than that ſhould ever be acceded to, we ought to ſpend our laſt guinea, nay, our laſt ſhilling, and alſo maintain our right of ſearching neutral ſhips while we had a man or a drop of blood to loſe in ſo momentous a cauſe. Both theſe points we had effectually ſecured, and they were of ſo much conſequence, that it was no matter if ſome little advantages had been ceded in ſome of the other particulars.

The queſtion was then put and agreed to.

Friday, December 11.

His majeſty's aſſent was given, by commiſſion, to the militia bill, foreign correſpondence bill, lottery miſtake bill, corn importation bill, naval ſtores bill, exchequer bills, loan bill, five incloſure and road bills, and eight bills of naturalization.

The committee on the poor badge bill, which ſtood for to day, was put off until after the receſs.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Thurſday, November 12.

Mr. Addington roſe to move, That the thanks of the houſe ſhould be voted to lord Keith, general Hutchinſon, &c. As long as conſummate military ſkill; as long as hardihood and intrepidity; as long as heroiſm and valour, continue to be eſtimated as the characteriſtics of Britons, ſo long will the recollection of the exertions of our gallant countrymen live in the memory of Great Britain. He did not mean to expatiate: general Hutchinſon had greatly deſcribed what he had nobly performed. It was not, however, his intention to confine himſelf to that part of our force, but to include another army, which came from India, fraught with military renown, to our aſſiſtance. After paying a high compliment to admiral Blanket and general Baird, he ſaid that

the ſword was now ſheathed, and he truſted in God that it was ſheathed for ever. Should, however, there be occaſion to draw it again, every confidence might be placed on the Britiſh army. He then concluded by moving, That the thanks of the houſe be given to admiral lord Keith, for the ability and perſeverance he had ſhown in maintaining his ſtation before Alexandria, and for the effectual aſſiſtance and co-operation afforded by his lordſhip to the army, &c.

Mr. Addington then proceeded to move the thanks of the houſe to admiral Blanket, vice-admiral Rainier, and to the officers, ſeamen, and marines, under their commands; alſo to ſir Richard Bickerton, and ſir J. B. Warren, for their activity and perſeverance in aſſiſting the army in Egypt; likewiſe to the officers, ſeamen, and marines, in lord Keith's fleet; that the houſe did acknowledge and highly approve of the conduct of the ſeamen and marines of every department. Thanks were then voted to general ſir J. H. Hutchinſon, K. B. for his ſervices, by which the honour of the Britiſh nation has been ſo ſignally upheld, and luſtre reflected on the Britiſh arms; to general Coote, general Baird, lord Cavan, &c. and to all the officers of the ſtaff of the Britiſh and Indian army, a ſimilar vote paſſed. The houſe alſo highly approved of and acknowledged the zeal, diſcipline, and intrepidity of the non-commiſſioned officers and privates of every deſcription.—Theſe votes paſſed *nem con.*

Friday, November 13.

Lord Hawkeſbury moved the order of the day, for the houſe taking into conſideration the convention between his majeſty and the emperor of Ruſſia.

Lord F. Oſborne then roſe, in order to move the addreſs. He took a view of the conduct of the Northern powers with regard to the league into which they had entered againſt this country. He concluded by moving, That an humble addreſs be preſented to his majeſty, thanking him for his gracious communication of the treaty with the emperor of Ruſſia.

The hon. R. Ryder ſeconded the motion.

Mr. Erſkine, after ſeveral excellent remarks on the merits of the convention with the Northern powers, declared, that he thought it a cold expreſſion to ſay merely that he approved of the peace: it had his higheſt approbation; and his majeſty's miniſters who concluded it were entitled to his warmeſt gratitude and his beſt thanks.

Mr. Tierney.—Sir, in riſing at this late hour, I do not mean to go at length into the merits of the queſtion. I merely riſe to ſay that I moſt heartily approve of the convention. When miniſters undertook the adjuſtment of the diſpute with the Northern powers, and when they opened a negotiation for peace with France, they profeſſed ſincerity, and I, on my part, declared, that if ſincere, they ſhould have my ſupport. Upon both theſe points they have kept their word, and I keep mine; I give them my ſupport. I own I was one of thoſe who thought gloomily of the ſituation of the country, but now I ſee a ray of hope that cheers me. Miniſters have hitherto acted with ſincerity, wiſdom, and moderation. They have only to purſue the ſame courſe, and they ſhall not meet with any oppoſition from me; on the contrary, they ſhall have my warmeſt ſupport.

The queſtion being called for, the addreſs was agreed to without a diviſion.

Monday, November 16.

Mr. Addington ſtated, that the houſe having determined to continue for three months longer the naval and military eſtabliſhment of laſt year, or rather to provide for the poſſible continuance of that eſtabliſhment, it became neceſſary to aſcertain the ways and means by which this intention was to be fulfilled. The houſe would recollect the amount of the eſtimates already voted: for the army above two million, for the navy three millions and a half, which with the advance eſtabliſhment, viz. 400,000l. for Great Britain, and 75,000l. for Ireland, would make a total of 7,000,000l. The ways and means by which he propoſed to meet this expenditure were the produce of the land and malt tax, and a new iſſue of exchequer bills, to make up the deficiency, as the ſum required would altogether amount to 8,500 000l. He then went into a very long financial detail, and explained the bargain which had been concluded with the committee of the holders of outſtanding exchequer bills, which he propoſed to fund. Having deſcribed the contract exactly in the ſame manner as we gave it in our laſt Magazine, he concluded by moving the uſual reſolution.

Mr. Dent ſtated ſeveral objections to the bargain: he thought it very unreaſonable that the bank ſhould be paid for the bills it holds, in ſpecie. The bank ought to fund their bills in the ſame way as other holders.

Mr. Tierney ſpoke highly in favour of the plan ſubmitted by the chancellor of the exchequer.

Monday, November 23.

Mr. Sturges brought up a bill for relieving overſeers from penalties to which they are liable, in giving parochial aid to perſons who do not wear badges. Read a firſt time. On the motion for the ſecond reading,

Sir William Elford ſaid, the more he conſidered the ſubject, the more he was convinced of the impropriety of the power to be given to magiſtrates. He deprecated any alteration of a ſyſtem of laws ſo antient and ſo wiſely eſtabliſhed as the poor laws, without the moſt mature and deliberate caution.

Mr. Sturgeſs ſaid, that in the abſence of his honourable friend (Mr. Newbold) he had taken the liberty of bringing in the bill. He was not aware that any objection would be offered to it in the preſent ſtage. He truſted that the houſe would permit the ſecond reading of the bill, and when it came before the committee, he had no doubt but that every objection which could be urged againſt it would be removed.

Lord Glenbervie ſincerely approved of the bill.

Mr. M. A. Taylor and Mr. Sibthorpe ſpoke each in favour of the bill, which was then ordered to be read a ſecond time on Wedneſday.

Wedneſday, November 25.

The ſecretary at War roſe, to move for leave to bring in a bill to do away certain doubts upon the enſuing ballot for the militia. He ſtated, that it would be recollected, that the total number of militia for England and Wales, was 76,596. Of this number about 19,000 had entered into the regulars; and in this number he included thoſe of the ſupplementary militia, which had been called out in 1799. The different counties, however, were bound to make up the deficiencies occaſioned by thoſe who had entered into the regulars, unleſs certificates of their enliſtment were produced. By the act paſſed in June 1799, the country would be obliged to furniſh as many men as thoſe who had gone into the line; and as this would certainly be attended with conſiderable difficulty; he ſhould propoſe, only as a temporary meaſure, that the counties ſhould furniſh two fifths of the number, and to this he hoped there would be no objection. He then moved, that leave be given to bring in a bill to regulate, for a time to be limited, the number of militiamen for the ſeveral counties, ridings, and places in England and Wales.

Lord Temple requeſted information to what period the hon. gentleman meant to extend what he called only a temporary meaſure.

The ſecretary at war, in anſwer to the queſtion of the noble lord, ſaid, that the extent of the period of the ſervices of the militia muſt be regulated entirely by circumſtances, probably ſix months, probably more, probably leſs.—Leave was given.

Thurſday, November 26.

Mr. Newbold moved, that, owing to an inaccuracy, the bill for protecting overſeers from certain penalties, be withdrawn. He alſo moved for leave to bring in a new bill, which was granted. The bill was then brought in, and read a firſt and ſecond time.

Monday, November 30.

The ſheriffs of London appeared at the bar, and preſented a petition from the lord mayor, aldermen, and common council, praying that the act prohibiting the diſtilleries might be continued—The petition was ordered to be laid on the table.

Tueſday, December 1.

Mr. alderman Curtis brought in a bill to repeal two acts of parliament, one of the 31ſt Geo. II. and the other 38th Geo. III. relative to the aſſize of bread.—Read a firſt time.

Mr. Addington ſaid he ſhould ſupport the bill. The bill called alderman Skinner's bill, had not anſwered the purpoſes it was intended ſo fully as could have been wiſhed. He concurred with thoſe who thought that the cauſe which exiſted among millers to bear down the price of grain had been done away. This was a matter of indifference to bakers, as they were to have their allowance, be the price what it might. They had an inducement when the meal was low in price, but when it was high they had none for the purpoſe of raiſing the price. It muſt be admitted that competition among the venders of grain cannot be greater among bakers than among millers and mealmen. The bakers, ſhould the bill paſs, will have an inducement to ſtipulate for meal at as low a rate as they can obtain it. After enlarging upon the points of the bill as they would affect the bakers and the public, he concluded by declaring for the ſecond reading. The bill was then read a ſecond time, and ordered to be committed to-morrow.

Wedneſday, December 2.

Read a third time and paſſed, the poor badge bill.

The houſe then went into a committee on the bread bill,

Mr. Alderman Curtis brought up a clauſe to the following effect: That from and after the 31ſt day of December next, every meal-factor, flour-factor and corn-dealer, in the city of London, ſhall be obliged to deliver, or cauſe to be delivered, every Monday before five o'clock of the afternoon, to the cocket office at the manſion houſe, an account, ſpecifying the quantity and price of all corn, meal, or flour, ſold by him or them during the preceding week, with the names and reſidences of the purchaſers.

Mr. Roſe obſerved, that he gave certainly every commendation to the worthy alderman for bringing forward this meaſure, but he had ſome doubts how far it might prove ſucceſsful. It had been ſaid, that a competition would enſue among bakers, but he was uncertain how far that might be the caſe. In place of a competition, a combination might take place, and the public might be worſe off than at preſent.

Mr. Alderman Curtis was of opinion the public could not be worſe treated by thoſe worthy gentlemen, the meal and corn factors, than they had been and were at this moment. Theſe worthy gentlemen had lately contrived to raiſe the price of flour, and even on Monday an additional riſe had taken place. The people were aſtoniſhed, as well they might be, how the flour roſe when the grain did not. He was thoroughly convinced that nothing could poſſibly free the public from the ſhameful depredations of theſe men, except the preſent bill. He then moved ſeveral other clauſes, which were added to the bill. One provided, that the returns of flour, &c. delivered at the cocket office, ſhould not be made public without the authority of the magiſtrates.

The houſe then reſumed, the report was received, and ordered to be taken into further conſideration on Monday, and to be printed.

Monday, December 7.

In a committee on the bread bill, Mr. Alderman Curtis moved a clauſe reſpecting the returns of grain. He meant that the clauſe for receiving the returns of wheat and flour ſhould be divided into two claſſes, as upon Monday little or no flour is ſold; therefore he wiſhed the return of that article to be made every Monday, not for the week, but up to the Monday immediately preceding. There were other clauſes which correſponded with the above. He wiſhed to take the price of flour as he had ſtated; Monday was the great wheat day, there was little or none ſold on Wedneſday and Friday, and there was no flour whatever ſold on Monday.

Mr. Fuller wiſhed that the aſſize ſhould be aboliſhed altogether.

Mr. Addington ſaid, with regard to the bill before the committee, he conſidered it as an effort to get rid of a greater evil by the adoption of a leſſer. The aſſize of bread appeared to him to be the offspring of folly and impolicy, and the ſure forerunner of famine. It operated upon the mealmen and others, when high, or rather at all times, to aſk an exorbitant price for their articles, whereas, on the contrary, it put the baker under the hardeſt conſtraint.

In times of dearth and ſcarcity he is compelled to ſell his bread at a profit upon which he cannot ſubſiſt. He is compelled to give long credit, and ſuffers an infinity of privations unneceſſary for him to deſcribe. With theſe ſentiments and opinions, of the rectitude of which he was fully convinced, he could not look at the mode of ſetting the price of bread in the metropolis without concern, and a wiſh that it might be remedied: but ſhould the houſe, at a future period, proceed to do away the aſſize, they ought to proceed with a degree of circumſpective temperance and anxiety bordering upon apprehenſion.

Mr. Courtenay ſpoke in favour of the bill, as did Mr. H. Browne and Mr. Johnſtone.

The ſecretary at war ſaid, that certainly abuſes exiſted in the corn market among the dealers in general, but more particularly among thoſe called middle men. He hoped that after the receſs the ſubject would be conſidered by a committee; at preſent, it was neceſſary that every information ſhould be got, in order that the houſe might be fully aware of what they undertake, and therefore he was for delaying the further conſideration of the bill until after the receſs. If the aſſize ſhould be done away, he hoped that the trade would be open to every body, only that the baker ſhould be obliged to ſell bread of the weight which he profeſſed it to be.

Mr. Alderman Curtis ſtated, that the food of the capital was in the hands of ſix or ſeven corn dealers, and that there was no competition in the market. He then brought up the clauſes, which were added to the bill. The report was received, and the bill, with the amendments, ordered to be printed, and to be taken into conſideration on the 2d of February next.

[To be continued.]

THEATRE.

A NEW Opera, intitled CHAIN'S OF THE HEART; OR, THE SLAVE BY CHOICE, was performed, for the firſt time, at Covent-garden theatre, December 9. The dialogue and ſongs are written by Prince Hoare, a gentleman who has frequently amuſed the public; and the muſic is the compoſition of Mazzinghi and Reeve. The characters were thus repreſented:

MOORS.

Ala Benſalla, king of Ceuta, Mr. Braham; Azam, Mr Munden; Taruda, Mr. Waddy; Seid, Mr. Atkins; Tucapel, Mr. King; Officers, Mr. Thompſon and Mr. Trueman; Merchants, Mr. Blurton, &c.; Gomel, Mr. Beverly; Haſſan, Mr. Howell.—Zulema, Signora Storace; Zara, Mrs. Edwards; attendants of Zulema, Miſs Dixon, Miſs Howell, Miſs Wheatly, and Miſs Sims. Two Magi.

EUROPEANS.

Villaſor, Mr. Cory; Prince Henry of Portugal, Mr. Brunton; Meneſes, Mr. Wilkinſon; Don Manuel, Mr. Hill; Riccardo, Mr. H. Johnſton; Cotillon; Mr. Fawcett; O'Phelim, Mr. Johnſton; Juan, Maſter Standen.—Gulnare, Miſs Murray; Silvia, Miſs Waters.

Portugueſe and Mooriſh officers, mariners, mutes, ſlaves, prieſts, and ſoldiers.

Scene—Ceuta, on the Coaſt of Africa.

The fable is founded on the expedition of the Portugueſe againſt Ceuta in the fifteenth century, in which prince Henry, afterward the famous encourager of navigation, and patron of its promoters, firſt diſtinguiſhed himſelf.

The Moors of Africa had ſome years before made an irruption into the borders of Spain and Portigal, and carried off many priſoners to Ceuta. Villaſor, a noble Portugueſe, is ſuppoſed to have been one of thoſe who were ſurpriſed at this time. He has remained a priſoner for many years, with no comfort except the ſociety of his ſon, whom he has called Oſmin, and a young girl, Gulnare, who had been thrown by the Moors into the ſame cell. Villaſor has cauſed both to wear the Mooriſh dreſs for the ſake of their ſafety.

Azam, the grand ſlave-maſter, being inclined to make the moſt of his place, conſents to Villaſor, but demands an exorbitant ranſom. Oſmin being arrived at manhood, conceives the deſign of ſelling himſelf at the Fair of Slaves, which is annually held at Ceuta; but he is prevented by Gulnare, who under a ſtrong impreſſion of gratitude and compaſſion toward Villaſor, offers herſelf as the victim inſtead of Oſmin, and finds a purchaſer in Benſalla, but avails herſelf of the known generoſity of his character to preſerve herſelf to Oſmin, and finally to procure her return to him.

The Portugueſe, in the mean time, attack Ceuta by land, while their ſhips blockade the harbour. Azam, for purpoſes of his own gratification, having furniſhed the means of opening one of the gates of the town, the Portugueſe troops are introduced by Oſmin, and Benſalla is ſurpriſed, while in the act of generouſly preſerving Gulnare for her lover. Prince Henry reſpecting the amiable character of Benſalla, orders him to be ſtill treated with the reſpect due to a ſovereign.

The comic part is ſupplied by the adventures of Cotillon and O'Phelim, the former of whom was once a dancing-maſter, and is now a ſoldier in the Portugueſe ſervice; the latter an Iriſh cook in the ſame regiment. They are made priſoners, bought by Azam, and placed in the ſervice of Zulema, his favourite miſtreſs, who becomes enamoured of Cotillon, and, after various efforts, at laſt eſcapes with him to the Portugueſe army.

There is nothing of ſtriking beauty and novelty in this piece, which is rather to be conſidered as a Dramatic Patticcio, and in that light it is very well adapted to its obvious purpoſe, the bringing Storace and Braham again upon the Engliſh ſtage.

The ſcenery and dreſſes are ſuperb, particularly the former, which reflects great honour on the artiſt.

SPECIMEN of the SONGS.

BENSALLA.

Believe my vows, while thus we part,
Sincere as thou art fair!
I ſtrive to tear thee from my heart—
Still thou alone art there.

The voice of honour in my ſoul,
Sweet maid, proclaims thee free;
But love, diſdaining all controul,
Enchains my will and thee.

Did yonder riſing orb of day
For me the mine inflame,
Did war, that calls me hence away,
Beſtow immortal fame;

What joy ſuperior ſhould I prove,
Could I their gifts reſign,
To fold thee with accepted love,
And claim a heart like thine!

DUET. ZULEMA and BENSALLA.

Zul. Love in ſimple words unfolding,
Can I paint my ſov'reign's heart?
Benſ. Only bleſt while her beholding,
Tell her that 'tis death to part!
Zul. Are you ſure you truly love her?
Benſ. That theſe burning ſighs diſcover—
Zul. Sighs like air are light and fleeting—
Benſ. No! believe the breaſt thus beating.
Both. By theſe ſighs the heart you prove!
Oh, Hope! the ſweet promiſe of Joy's gladſome morning,
Ariſe, and with garlands of Fancy adorning,
Oh, ſmile on our pains! light the triumph of love!

THE BRITISH MUSE.

ADDRESS of a FELON to his CHILD, on the Morning of his Execution.

Written by Mrs. OPIE, and reſpectfully inſcribed to the Philanthropic Society.

POOR Babe, that thro' this darkſome grate
Survey'ſt yon crowd with curious eye,
If thou wouldſt learn why thus they wait—
Know, 'tis to ſee thy father die!

To ſee how I that Death ſhall bear
They deem for crimes like mine moſt fit;
Crimes urg'd by want, which many there
Were never tempted to commit.

A death, ſweet innocent, for which
Thou'lt be, alas, one day revil'd;
For with my guilt the rude of ſpeech
Too often will reproach my child!

Poor outcaſt, whither canſt thou turn?
Thy future fate adds pangs to mine:
I muſt my own offences mourn,
And fear, devoted babe, for thine!

For all thou canſt from me receive
Is but a legacy of ſhame;
And, ſhouldſt thou up to manhood live,
Thou'lt learn to curſe thy father's name!

But, while my guilt's to thee unknown,
Come, let me preſs thee to my breaſt,
Thou treaſure without crime—my ſon—
Thou only wealth I e'er poſſeſs'd!

Thou pledge of pure and faithful loves,
Image of one I ſtill deplore;
Yet now her death a bleſſing proves—
She lives not, to behold this hour!

But from my arms, ah, wherefore fly?—
Why do I court thy kiſs in vain?
Whence ſpring thoſe tears; what means that cry?—
Ah me!—thou fear'ſt my clanking chain!

'Till now I felt not all its weight;
But ſoon they'll come, my limbs to free:—
When I am ſummon'd to my fate,
My arms unchain'd may cloſe on thee!

Then welcome, bitter hour of death:
Thou'lt be of ſome keen pangs beguil'd;
For, e'er I yield my forfeit breath,
I cloſely may embrace my child!

And ſee, they come to take me hence!
My injur'd, precious boy, adieu!
O, cruel world, for my offence
Wilt thou this child with horror view?

Ah, yes:—with me his hopes muſt die;
For who will take him to their care?—
The prudent e'en his ſight will fly,
Left, with my blood, my guilt he ſhare!

And ſoon to vice and miſ'ry driven,
Unknown, or elſe diſdain'd by worth:
Untaught, my child, the way to heaven,
Thou'lt yet be deem'd unfit for earth!

* * * * * * *

What words are theſe, that to my ſoul
A feeling like delight impart?—
That fear and agony controul,
And bind an almoſt broken heart?

They ſay a gen'rous few have join'd
(The pride of theſe enlighten'd times)
Poor outcaſt, orphan babes to find,
And ſave them from their parent's crimes!

To them inſtruction's page they ope,
Teach them to toil for honeſt fame,
And by their own good actions hope
To wipe away their parent's ſhame.

Bleſt men, a dying culprit's pray'r
Now ſeeks for you the heavenly throne,
For making thus our babes your care,
May heav'n reward you in your own!

ANACREON'S ODE to his DOVE.

TELL me, why, my ſweeteſt dove,
Thus your humid pinions move,
Shedding through the air in ſhowers,
Eſſence of the balmieſt flowers?
Tell me whither, whence you rove—
Tell me all—my ſweeteſt dove.
Curious ſtranger! I belong
To the bard of Teian ſong;
With his mandates now I fly
To the nymph of azure eye;

Ah! that eye has madden'd many,
But the poet more than any!
Venus for a hymn of love,
Warbled in her votive grove,
('Twas in ſooth a gentle lay)
Gave me to the band away.
See me now his faithful minion:
Thus with ſoftly-gliding pinion,
To his lovely girl I bear
Songs of paſſion through the air.
Oft he blandly whiſpers me,
'Soon, my bird, I'll ſet you free.'
But in vain he'll bid me fly,
I ſhall ſerve him till I die.
Never could my plumes ſuſtain
Ruffling winds and chilling rain,
O'er the plains, or in the dell,
On the mountain's ſavage ſwell;
Seeking in the deſert wood
Gloomy ſhelter, ruſtic food.
Now I lead a life of eaſe,
Far from ſuch retreats as theſe;
From Anacreon's hand I eat
Food delicious, viands ſweet;
Flutter o'er his goblet's brim,
Sip the foamy wine with him.
Then I dance and wanton round
To the lyre's beguiling ſound;
Or with gentle-fanning wings
Shade the minſtrel while he ſings:
On his harp then ſink in ſlumbers,
Dreaming ſtill of dulcet numbers!
This is all—away—away—
You have made me waſte the day.
How I've chatter'd! prating crow
Never yet did chatter ſo.

LINES on the ſudden and much-lamented Death of the Right Hon. Sir JOHN PARNELL, Bart. late Chancellor of the Iriſh Exchequer.

PARNELL is dead! that heart, to friendſhip dear,
No longer ſhines, on thoſe within his ſphere.
Though ſudden was the ſtroke, ſhall we complain
That Heav'n, in pity, ſav'd him hours of pain!
Parnell is dead! nor leaves behind, on earth
A name more rich in ſocial, patriot worth;
Nor place, nor title, ſway'd his noble mind,
Great as he fill'd them: greater he reſign'd.
An Empire's juſt regret his hearſe attends,
Dear to his country, honour'd by his friends;
And long ſhall filial tears, and friendſhip's ſighs,
Point to the ſacred ſpot, where Parnell lies.

NAVAL INTELLIGENCE.

From the London Gazette, December 23.

Admiralty office, December 22.

Copy of a Letter from the right hon. Lord Keith, K. B. Commander in Chief of his Majeſty's Ships and Veſſels in the Mediterranean, to Evan Nepean, Eſq. dated at Sea, September 14, 1801.

Sir,

IT is with great concern that I acquaint you, for the information of their lordſhips, of the capture of his majeſty's ſhip the Swiftſure, by Gantheaume's ſquadron, on his return to France, after his unſucceſsful attempt to debark troops on the coaſt of Egypt; I incloſe a copy of captain Hallowell's communication of that unfortunate event; and have the honour to be, ſir, &c. KEITH.

On Board L'Indiviſible, in Toulon-Road, July 24, 1801.

My Lord,

It is with infinite concern I have to inform your lordſhip, of the capture of his majeſty's late ſhip Swiftſure, by a ſquadron of French ſhips under the command of rear admiral Gantheaume.

Having ſeparated from my convoy, conſiſting of cartels and light tranſports, on the 22d ult. I was making the beſt of my way to Malta, when on the morning of the 24th, at half paſt three, the wind at NW, Cape Dearne bearing SW, diſtant about ſeven leagues, we diſcovered five ſail to leeward of us, nearly hull down.

As lieutenant Sheppard, of the Pigmy cutter, had informed me on the 19th, that an enemy's ſquadron had quitted Duraſſo, on the 7th, where they had attempted to land their troops, I concluded the ſhips in ſight were thoſe of which he had given me intelligence, and made all the ſail poſſible to get from them: at ſun-riſe my ſuſpicions were realized; we clearly diſtinguiſhed four of them to be of the line, the other a large frigate, and their ſignal flags ſoon pointed them out to be enemy's. At half paſt five, two of the line of battle ſhips tacked, by ſignal, and ſtood on till they fetched into our wake, while the other two and the frigate ſtood upon the ſame tack with us. At eight o'clock, the two ſhips and frigate having fore-reached conſiderably on us, tacked and ſtood to-

ward us until they got on our lee quarter, when they tacked again. From their great ſuperiority of ſailing, they cloſed with us ſo faſt as to be nearly within gun-ſhot by two P. M.; and as the ſhips aſtern were coming up very faſt, I determined on bearing down and engaging the two ſhips and frigate to leeward, hoping to diſable one of them before the whole ſquadron could be brought into action, and thereby effect our eſcape by getting to leeward of them: at three o'clock, I bore up and ſteered to paſs aſtern of the ſternmoſt ſhip, all our ſteering ſails ſet on the ſtarboard-ſide, when the enemy tacked and ſtood toward us; at half-paſt three, the Indiviſible, of eighty guns, bearing rear-admiral Gantheaume's flag, and the Dix Août, of 74 guns, being in cloſe order, and within half gun-ſhot of us, opened their fire, which was inſtantly anſwered, and a warm action enſued. Their great ſuperiority in point of ſailing gave them every advantage of poſition, and baffled all our attempts to get to leeward of them. At thirty-ſeven minutes paſt four, the Jean Bart and Conſtitution, of 74 guns, being within gun-ſhot, and cloſing upon our ſtarboard quarter very faſt, the Indiviſible almoſt on board of us on our larboard bow, and the Dix Août on our larboard quarter, our fore yard and fore-topſail-yard ſhot away, all our running and part of our ſtanding rigging cut to pieces, the fore-maſt, mizen-maſt, and main-yard badly wounded, our deck lumbered with the wreck and ſails, all hopes of making our eſcape or falling in with any ſuccour being cut off, and only one of the enemy's ſhips apparently much damaged, I thought further reſiſtance, in our crippled ſtate, would be expoſing the lives of valuable men without any advantage to their country reſulting from it, with pain, therefore, I ordered his majeſty's colours to be ſtruck, after an action of one hour and ſeven minutes.

Moſt ſincerely, my lord, do I lament our having been oppoſed to ſo very ſuperior a force, as from the ſteady and gallant conduct of the officers and men I had the honour to command on this occaſion, and with whom I had been acting nearly four years on various ſervices, I have not a doubt of what would have been the iſſue of a conteſt on more equal terms. Our loſs has been principally in maſts, yards, ſails, and rigging, having only two men killed, lieut. Davis, and ſeven men wounded (two of whom are ſince dead of their wounds) the enemy's intention being to diſable us in our rigging, in which they ſucceeded too well. At the commencement of this unequal conteſt, we were 86 men ſhort of compliment, and had 59 ſick, thoſe who returned from the army before Alexandria having introduced a bad fever into the ſhip.

Four hundred men were put on board the Swiftſure on the evening of her capture, many of the priſoners removed, and the ſhip in ſo crippled a ſtate as to render it neceſſary to take her in tow; the next day, carpenters and ſeamen from all the ſhips were ſent on board to repair her damages, and ſoldiers to complete her number to 700; and with all their exertions and the advantage of ſmooth water, it was ſix days before they were able to make ſail.

On the 4th of July, between Lampidoſa and Pantalaria, they fell in with, and captured the Mohawk letter of marque, from Briſtol to Malta, laden with various articles of merchandize; on the 22d they anchored in this road, in general very ſickly, without having landed any part of their troops on the coaſt of Egypt or Barbary, although they attempted a debarkation at Derne, on the 23d ult. but from the hoſtile appearance and reception of the natives, they did not perſevere, and returned to their ſhips without landing a ſingle perſon.

I feel it a duty I owe to admiral Gantheaume, to mention to your lordſhip the handſome manner in which we have all been treated by the officers of his ſquadron, and by him in particular; the ſtricteſt orders have been iſſued to preſerve the property of every individual, and he has done every thing in his power to render the ſituation of the officers and men as comfortable as poſſible.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) BEN. HALLOWELL.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

NOVEMBER 28.

A COURT of common-council was yeſterday held at Guildhall; preſent the lord-mayor, twelve aldermen, recorder, ſheriffs, and a great many commoners.

After the proceedings of the laſt court were read,

Mr. James Dixon, in his place, apologized for an omiſſion he had made in the reſolutions of thanks to lord Keith, ſir

John Hely Hutchinſon, and to the ſtaff officers of the army in Egypt, in which the freedom of the city to the two former gentlemen were left out; he therefore begged leave to amend them.

Mr. ſheriff Cox ſeconded the propoſition, which was unanimouſly agreed on.

Mr. Dixon moved the freedom of the city to ſir James Saumarez, and a ſword of one hundred guineas value, which was ſeconded by Mr. Kemble, and unanimouſly agreed to, and ordered to be publiſhed.

The court agreed to petition parliament for an act for regulating the wholeſale dealers in fiſh at Billingſgate.

Mr. Francis Garret renewed the ſubject of his motion for an account of the quantity of wheat to be taken, and in addition to what he urged at the laſt court, gave other reaſons for ſuch a ſurvey being neceſſary; that the return ſhould be made twice in every year by the proprietor or poſſeſſor of corn, ſealed up and atteſted to the beſt of his knowledge and belief, and alſo of the number of acres of land ſown with bread corn.

In the courſe of his arguments, Mr. Garratt obſerved, that it appeared by the Gazette of the 15th of Auguſt 1796, that wheat, for Middleſex, was 75s 9d per quarter, and that the quartern loaf in the following week was 7¾d. (This was prior to alderman Skinner's act.) That on the 7th Nov. inſt. wheat for Middleſex, was 67s 7d per quarter, by the Gazette, and the quartern loaf, in the following week, 10¾d. This aſſize was ſet according to Mr. alderman Skinner's act, which paſſed on the 4th of July 1797. It was therefore evident that bread was now 3d, in the quartern loaf higher than in Auguſt 1796, notwithſtanding wheat was 8s per quarter lower than at that time. It alſo clearly appeared that the preſent mode of fixing the price of bread, without taking into account the price of foreign flour, was productive of a further injury to the public; as ſuch flour was, no doubt, uſed by bakers in general. The weight of foreign flour imported within the laſt twelve months, was equal to 304,000 ſacks and upward, and which had been ſold at 10 to 25 per cent. under the price of Engliſh flour.—Mr. Garratt concluded by moving.

'That this court, apprehending that wheat and other grain may be withheld from the regular markets, and that the price may be thereby unreaſonably advanced—Do reſolve to petition parliament, praying that a ſurvey of the grain from which bread is made be taken from time to time; and that the proprietor or poſſeſſor thereof be compelled to make a due return, upon oath, of the quantities in his poſſeſſion, ſpecifying the ſeparate quantities of wheat, flour, barley, barley flour, oats and oatmeal, rye and rye flour; alſo a return of the probable produce of the different ſorts of grain when threſhed.'

Mr. alderman Hibbert, in a ſpeech of ſome length, ſeconded the motion.

Mr. Samuel Dixon, Mr. Kemble, Mr. alderman Le Meſurier, Mr. Dornford, Mr. Walter, Mr. Harper, Mr. Box, Mr. deputy White, and Mr. Hardy, ſupported the motion.

Alderman Curtis, Mr. Hodgſon, Mr. Waithman, and Mr. Jacks, oppoſed it.

Mr. Garratt, in reply, anſwered every objection that was made againſt the motion, and particularly thoſe who wiſhed to divert the court from agreeing to it by aſſerting that it was intended to put the corn under the exciſe laws, which he proteſted was foreign from his wiſhes; but, on the contrary, he declared he would oppoſe every meaſure that had ſuch a tendency.

Mr. alderman Hibbert alſo anſwered a number of objections, and on the queſtion being put it was agreed to.

DECEMBER 1.

Hanover, Nov. 8. Our troops have at length taken poſſeſſion of the fortreſs of Hamelin, which has been conſidered as the bulwark of the country; and alſo of the fort of George. They were received by the inhabitants with the moſt lively demonſtrations of joy.

General Comte de Walmoden Gimborn, who retired when the Pruſſians came here, has returned to take upon him the command of the Hanoverian army.

Peterſburgh, Nov. 6. On the 4th inſt. we had here a moſt violent ſtorm, which ſet in from the ſea, and ſwelled the waters of the Neva ſeven Engliſh feet above their uſual height, by which all the lower parts of the city were laid under water, and the inhabitants were obliged to take refuge in the upper ſtories. The inundation did great damage, and many veſſels were loſt.

DECEMBER 3.

Yeſterday the ſeſſion commenced at the Old Bailey, before the right hon. ſir John Eamer, lord mayor, Mr. juſtice Groſe, Mr. juſtice Graham, Mr. Recorder, &c.

DECEMBER 10.

Yeſterday the ſeſſion ended at the Old Bailey, when William Bowers, Joſeph Harriſon, and Peter Cockran, ſeverally

received judgment of death. James Dowſing, William Flint, Nicholas Periolle, William Deacon, John Muzzered, Ann Long, Michael Gavin, John Doe, John Smith, Joſeph Fernandez, Samuel Karr, alias Ker, J. Ward, J. Whitehead, Sarah Leſter, J. Thatcher, James Harfield, Alexander Wilſon, Edward Bullock, Mark Connor, Thomas Blake, alias Evans, Robert Walſh, James Barry, and Walter Coggan, were ordered to be tranſported beyond the ſeas for the term of ſeven years; and Ann Rockhall, for receiving ſtolen goods, was ordered to be tranſported for the term of fourteen years.

Mary Church, one of the capital convicts, having been delivered of a female child the day after her conviction, was not brought into court; and Amy Staples, another capital convict, being aſked what ſhe had to ſay in ſtay of execution of her ſentence, anſwered, ſhe was with child. A jury of matrons being ſworn, and giving their opinion to that effect, her judgment was reſpited.

The ſeſſions being then ended, the ſame were adjourned until Wedneſday, the 13th of January.

DECEMBER 12.

General Menou, previous to his departure from Egypt, addreſſed the following letter to his brother, the mayor of Bouſai:

The fortune of war has turned againſt me; attached by 40,000 Engliſh Oſmanlis, and ſeapoys of India, on the land ſide, by upward of 100 ſhips of war on the ſea, a prey to hunger, thirſt, and diſeaſes of all kinds, having no longer the neceſſary medical remedies for the hoſpitals, unable to reckon more than 1800 men under arms, and almoſt all having the ſcurvy, having eaten all the horſes, aſſes, and camels, which were in Alexandria, (it was our only food) I have been obliged to capitulate, after we had fought with deſperation. Eighty pieces of cannon, mortars, or howitzers, by land, and upward of two thouſand other pieces by ſea, battered us, and would have reduced us to aſhes. The ſiege or blockade laſted ſix whole months. If we have fallen under the greateſt force the Engliſh ever collected in an expedition by ſea, we have at leaſt preſerved our honour. I ſhall not bring back to France a ſingle ſoldier that has not been wounded; ſeveral have more than fifteen wounds.

I am going to ſet out for France. My conſcience is tranquil. I have done all that honour and probity, as well as attachment to my country, commanded.

ARD. MENOU.

Plymouth, Dec. 9.—This morning came on, at one o'clock, a moſt dreadful gale of wind at S and SW with a heavy pitching ſea. It kept increaſing in fury till eleven A. M. when the wind veered round to the weſtward, and became more moderate. This gale was, during the time it laſted, more violent than the hurricane of the 3d ult. and 1ſt inſtant.

DECEMBER 16.

A court of common-council was held yeſterday at Guildhall, at which were preſent eleven aldermen, the ſheriffs, and the greater part of the commoners.

The committee for general purpoſes laid before the court a report in writing, for appointing a magiſtrate for the borough of Southwark—which was read and agreed to, and the lord-mayor promiſed to lay the ſame before the next court of aldermen.

The court, after ſome little debate on the precedency of the city officers, ordered that the following order be obſerved and complied with on all public occaſions, viz. Mr. Recorder, Mr. Chamberlain, Mr. Common Serjeant, Mr. Town-clerk, Mr. Comptroller, Mr. Remembrancer, Mr. Solicitor, Clerk of the Peace.

The court then proceeded to the election of a Town clerk, and Clerk of the Peace, by ſhew of hands inſtead of ballot, as there was no oppoſition, when Mr. Henry Woodthorpe and Mr. Shelton were unanimouſly elected.

DECEMBER 17.

Yeſterday his majeſty held a council of his cabinet miniſters, when the recorder of London attended with his report of the priſoners convicted in November ſeſſions, when the following were ordered for execution on Wedneſday next, viz.—Thomas Scott Smith, for forgery; John Potter, for a rape on Anne Percey, an infant; James Everett and Charles Everett, for burglary; and Thomas Gout, for feloniouſly extorting money and various articles of furniture and apparel from Samuel Biggs.

DECEMBER 18.

Letters patent have paſſed the great ſeal of Ireland, diſſolving the board of ordnance, and colonel Manley, of the royal artillery, lieutenant-colonel Fiſher, of the royal engineers, Alexander Schaw, Robert Coleman, and Charles Hochſtetter, eſqrs. are appointed as a board of reſpective officers, to manage and conduct the ordnance department in that part of the united kingdom, under the controul of the board of ordnance of Great Britain, in purſuance of his majeſty's warrant, iſſued for that purpoſe.

Extract of a Letter from Harwich, Dec. 15.

By a Dutch veſſel which was yeſterday ſpoken with at ſea, we learn that in the ſevere gale of the 22d ult. not leſs than 84 veſſels, ſuppoſed to be principally Engliſh, and from the Baltic (as large quantities of timber have been caſt aſhore) were loſt on the coaſt of Holland, between the Texel and Helvoetſluys; and that the day this veſſel left the Brill, eighty dead bodies were taken up on ſhore by different veſſels and boats. Conſiderable damage has alſo been done on the coaſt of France.

DECEMBER 19.

The corporation of London, anxious of exhibiting a proof of their admiration of the gallant achievements of ſir Sidney Smith, at the ſiege of Acre, reſolved to beſtow upon him the freedom of their ancient city, and to accompany it with the preſent of a valuable ſword. Yeſterday the naval hero attended at Guildhall, in order to be inveſted with the civic privileges of which he had been deemed worthy, and to receive the ſymbol of valour he had ſo juſtly merited.

The lord-mayor, the chamberlain, and ſeveral of the aldermen, were ready to receive him. He made his appearance between one and two, and was uſhered into the chamberlain's office. The lord-mayor receive him with the utmoſt courteſy, and introduced him to Mr. James Dixon, the gentleman who had done himſelf the honour of moving the thanks of the court of common-council in his favour. The chamberlain then addreſſed the diſtinguiſhed officer in the following terms:

'Sir Sidney Smith,

'I give you joy, in the name of the lord-mayor, aldermen, and commons of the city of London, in common-council aſſembled, and preſent you the thanks of the court, for your gallant and ſucceſsful defence of St. Jean d'Acre, againſt the deſperate attack of the French army under the command of general Bonaparte; and as a further teſtimony of the ſenſe the court entertains of your great diſplay of valour on that occaſion, I have the honour to preſent you this ſword (*ſir Sidney received the ſword, and preſſed it with fervor to his lips*). I will not, ſir, attempt a panegyric upon an action to which the firſt oratorical powers in the moſt eloquent aſſemblies have been confeſſed unequal; but I cannot help exulting on this happy occaſion, at the vaſt acquiſition of national reputation acquired by your conduct at the head of a handful of Britons, in repulſing him who has been juſtly ſtyled the Alexander of the day, ſurrounded by a hoſt of conquerors, till then deemed invincible. By this ſplendid achievement you fruſtrated the deſigns of the foe on our Eaſt India territories, prevented the overthrow of the Ottoman power in Aſia, the downfal of its throne in Europe, and prepared the way for that treaty of peace, which it is devoutly to be wiſhed may long preſerve the tranquillity of the univerſe, and promote friendſhip and good-will among all nations. It muſt be highly gratifying to every lover of his country that this event ſhould have happened on the very ſpot where a gallant Engliſh monarch formerly diſplayed ſuch prodigies of valour, that a celebrated hiſtorian, recording his actions, ſtruck with the ſtupendous inſtances of proweſs diſplayed by that heroic prince, ſuddenly exclaimed, "Am I writing hiſtory or romance!" Had, ſir, that hiſtorian ſurvived, to have witneſſed what has recently happened at St. Jean d'Acre, he would have exultingly reſigned his doubts, and generouſly confeſſed that actions, no leſs extraordinary than thoſe performed by the gallant Cœur de Lion, have been achieved by ſir Sidney Smith.' [*This ſpeech was followed by univerſal acclamations,*]

Sir Sidney Smith thus replied;

'Sir,

'Unconſcious that I ſhould have been thought worthy of being addreſſed by you, on the part of the city of London, in terms of ſuch high and unqualified approbation, I am but ill prepared for replying in a manner adequately to expreſs the ſentiments with which I am impreſſed. My confidence would be leſſened, did I not feel that I was ſurrounded by friends, who are dear to me, and whoſe approbation I am proud to have received. It ſhall be the object of my future life to merit the panegyric you have been pleaſed to pronounce in my favour. For the freedom of your city, with which you have honoured me, I return you my ſincere thanks, and ſhall implicitly conform to all the obligations annexed to it. Above all, I accept this ſword as the moſt honourable reward which could have been conferred on me. In peace it will be my proudeſt ornament; and in war I truſt, I ſhall be ever ready to draw it in defence of my country, and for the protection of the city of London.'—[*Loud applauſe.*]

Sir Sidney Smith then took the uſual civic oaths; and having made a liberal donation to the poor's box, departed amid the acclamations of the populace.

DECEMBER 21.

MUTINY AT BANTRY BAY.—It was on the evening of the 7th inſtant, that the firſt obſervations were made by the officers of ſeveral ſhips of the ſquadron in Bantry Bay, that ſymptoms became evidently certain of ſome intended and approaching act of mutiny. It appears, that on its being underſtood that four or five ſail of the line were to be ordered to the Weſt Indies, the crews of the Temeraire and Formidable declared, that, as the peace was made, they would ſail only to England, and they declared their determination not to weigh anchor, if called upon. Apprehenſions were entertained that this ſpirit of inſubordination would extend to the whole fleet. No ſailing orders arriving, and the intended inſurrection being adjourned to that event, things remained in the uſual poſition till the morning of the 10th inſtant, when a ſeaman on board the Temeraire, rear admiral the hon. George Campbell, miſbehaving himſelf extremely, and with circumſtances of daring impudence toward one of the lieutenants, received a flogging, and was put in irons. Soon after this occurrence, appearances of revolt were for ſome time very viſible upon the forecaſtle, until at length a general cry was ſet up, of 'Reſcue the man in irons;' and attempts were made to enforce their threat. The rear-admiral, with undaunted reſolution and preſence of mind, ordered the hatches to be cloſed down immediately; and being ſeconded with no leſs intrepidity by capt. Eyles and all his officers, ſupported by the marines, who have done honour to themſelves and given a glorious example to their corps upon this occaſion, he ruſhed into the middle of the mutineers, and brought out their ring-leaders priſoners from among them. They were immediately ſent off in irons to the flag ſhip of admiral Mitchell, in order to be tried, and to receive the puniſhment due to the crime moſt unworthy of Britiſh ſailors.

On Friday, an admiralty meſſenger was diſpatched with a ſpecial commiſſion to ſir Andrew Mitchell, for the immediate trial of the mutineers, and the execution of ſuch of them as ſhall be found guilty. The admirals upon diſtant ſtations are empowered by their inſtructions to proceed to trial and execution upon ſuch occaſions, without ſending home for inſtructions or freſh authority. It will be remembered, that when earl St. Vincent took the command of the channel fleet, the ſame latitude, by a peculiar act of the royal favour and confidence, was included in his lordſhip's commiſſion.

SHIP captured from the ENEMY.

EL Virgine del Roſario, of 10 guns, by the Paſley.

BIRTH.

MRS. Bent, of Great Portland-ſtreet, a daughter.

MARRIAGES.

LORD Francis Spencer, ſecond ſon of the duke of Marlborough, to lady Frances Fitzroy, fifth daughter of the duke of Grafton.

Colonel Archer, to miſs Morgan, of Bath.

R. Rhode, eſq. to miſs Sotheby, of York-ſtreet, Covent-garden.

Major Macleod, to the right hon. lady Arabella Annelley, daughter of the earl of Mountmorris.

Henry William Eſpinaſſe, eſq. to the hon. Mrs. G. Petre, relict of the hon. George Wm. Petre.

Dr. Woodroffe, of Ansford, Somerſet, to miſs Clutterbuck, of North Cadbury.

DEATHS.

JAMES Henry Smith Barry, eſq. of Belmont, Cheſhire,

John Read, eſq. of Great James ſtreet, Bedford-row.

William Hamilton, eſq. of Blackheath.

Sir John Parnell, bart. M. P.

Marchioneſs of Antrim.

Right hon. lady Eliſabeth Noel, aged 70.

Sir John Buckworth, bart. at Bruſſels.

Thomas Halkett, eſq. at Calcutta, youngeſt ſon of the late ſir John Halkett, bart.

Alexander Willock, eſq. of Bedford-ſquare.

Lord Kenſington, in the 90th year of his age, the oldeſt member of the houſe of commons.

Peter Douglas, eſq. of Fitzroy-ſquare.

Mr. Pearſon, of Birmingham.

Mr. J. Stephenſon, of Huttoft, Lincolnſhire, aged 102.

Madam d'Ablaing de Griſſenburgh, aged 83, daughter of the late ſir Clement Cottrell Dormer.

Walter Beaty, eſq. of Newport Pagnel.

PROMOTIONS.

Whitehall, Nov. 23. The king has been pleaſed to conſtitute and appoint ſir Andrew Snape Hammond, bart. Henry Duncan, eſq. ſir John Henſlow, and ſir William Rule, knights, William Palmer, eſq. ſir William Bellingham, bart. Harry

Harmood, Samuel Gambier, Francis John Hartwell, Benjamin Tucker, Charles Hope, Iſaac Coffin, and Robert Fanſhaw, eſqrs. ſir Charles Saxton, bart. John Nicholſon Inglefield, eſq. and Alexander John Ball, bart.—principal officers and commiſſioners of his majeſty's navy.

Right hon. George Keith, K. B. (baron Keith of Ireland)—to be a baron of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, by the title of baron Keith of Stonehaven Mariſchal, in Kincardine.

Lieutenant-general ſir John Hely Hutchinſon, K. B.—to be a baron of the ſaid united kingdom, by the title of lord Hutchinſon, baron of Alexandria, and of Knocklofty, in Tipperary.

Richard Ford, eſq.—a knight.

BANKRUPTS. From the GAZETTE.

OCTOBER 27.

J. H. PEMBERTON, Liverpool, merchant.

J. Taylor, and J. B. March, Wigmore-ſtreet, Cavendiſh-ſquare, linen-drapers.

E. Wall, Shrewſbury, innkeeper.

OCTOBER 31.

J. Debrett, Piccadilly, bookſeller.

R. J. James, Penryn, Cornwall, dealer.

W. Middleton, J. H. Pemberton, and G. Felton, Liverpool, merchants.

J. H. Brondiſh, Birmingham, factor.

J. Newton, Mancheſter, check-manufacturer.

T. Leigh, Foxdenton, in Lancaſhire, dealer.

G. Mallalieu, Salford, Lancaſhire, cotton-manufacturer.

J. Henchan, Liverpool, dealer in muſlin.

J. Craig, Lime-ſtreet, merchant.

W. Halladay, Watling-ſtreet, warehouſeman.

A. H. Cortiſſor, Lemon-ſtreet, Goodman's-fields, merchant.

J. Attfield, Red-lion-ſtreet, Clerkenwell, carpenter.

J. Hefford, Curtain-road, Shoreditch, taylor.

J. Cheyney, Oxford-ſtreet, linen-draper.

NOVEMBER 3.

P. Kind, and W. Smith, Southampton, linen-drapers.

T. Taylor, Birmingham, draper.

J. Scott, and F. Roach, Caſtle-ſtreet, Leiceſter-fields, linen drapers.

NOVEMBER 7.

E. Humphreys, Briſtol, victualler.

J. Jeayes, Alderſgate-ſtreet, merchant.

J. Funnell, Kent-road, fellmonger.

I. Wallis, Twerton, in Somerſetſhire, baker.

W. Quantrill, William-ſtreet, Shoreditch, carpenter.

W. Izod, Lamb-ſtreet, Spitalfields, baker.

R. Atherton, Latchford, Cheſter, tanner.

I. Varley, Wigan, Lancaſhire, ſhopkeeper.

J. Ogden, Aſhton-under Lyne, cotton-ſpinner.

J. Corniſh, Deptford, butcher.

G. Andrews, Holybourne, Hampſhire, tanner.

A. Rudhall, Bedminſter, Somerſetſhire, baker.

J. G. Titchens, Queen-row, Bethnal-green, merchant.

G. Blakey, Mild-end, ſhip-owner.

W. Harvey, Liverpool, woollen draper.

E. Cobham, Liverpool, merchant.

NOVEMBER 10.

J. Tripp, Briſtol, ſaleſman.

J. Rawley, Chancery-lane, ſhoemaker.

B. T. Shynn, Purleigh, Eſſex, ſhopkeeper.

E. Strong, and W. Harvey, Liverpool, anchor ſmiths.

F. L. E. Orſtein, Frith-ſtreet, Soho, mathematical-inſtrument-maker.

G. King, Frome Selwood, Somerſetſhire, cabinet-maker.

J. Buchanan, Woolwich, pork-butcher.

J. Brock the younger, Wapping-ſtreet, ſlopſeller.

R. Evans, City-road, umbrella-maker.

NOVEMBER 14.

R. Henderſon, Oxford-ſtreet, fiſhmonger.

J. T. Serres, Wimpole-ſtreet, Cavendiſh-ſquare, bookſeller.

J. Simmonds, Canterbury, linen-draper.

R. Biſhop, Tetbury, Glouceſterſhire, and J. Ireland, Culkertox, in Wiltſhire, corn-dealers.

T. Allen, Bath, fiſhmonger.

J. Tilſtone, Newcaſtle-under-Lyme, hat-manufacturer.

J. Newton, Kirby-Lonſdale, Weſtmoreland, liquor-merchant.

E. Pheaſant, Grantham, Lincolnſhire, dealer in corn.

J. Stentaford, Plymouth, ſhopkeeper.

M. Palmer, Monkwearmouth ſhore, Durham, ſailmaker.

J. Blair, London-ſtreet, mariner.

J. Cockes, White Horſe-lane, Stepney, coal-merchant.

J. Barnes, Bolton, and J. Gardner, Over, Cheſter, cotton-manufacturers.

NOVEMBER 17.

J. Marſhall, Little Ruſſel-ſtreet, Bermondſey, tanner.

J. Tomlinſon, Salford, in Lancaſhire, twiſt-dealer.
J. Shuttleworth, Manchester, cotton-manufacturer.
J. Meycock, Broad-ſtreet, Bloomſbury, haberdaſher.
W. Ludby, Petworth, Suſſex, ſhop-keeper.
G. Cawthorn, Strand, bookſeller.
H. Nathan, Sheerneſs, ſlopſeller.
R. Tomkinſon, J. Tomkinſon, and D. F. Solieke, Liverpool, merchants.
W. Yeoman, Theobald's-road, Middleſex, tallow-chandler.
J. Dwyer, Briſtol, hatter.
J. M'Carty, Liverpool, merchant.
J. Evans, Liverpool, hardwareman.
H. Roſs, Liverpool, merchant.

NOVEMBER 21.

J. M. King, Liverpool, coffeehouſe-keeper.
S. Broughall, Yeaton, Salop, miller.
S. Coulthard, Bucklerſbury, warehouſeman.
I. Noble, Penrith, ironmonger.
E. Croydon, Stourbridge, baker.
D. Moffatt, Fleet-market, grocer.
R. Fiſher, Bedford-ſtreet, Covent-garden, taylor.
W. Dyſon, Marſden, Yorkſhire, dry-ſalter.

NOVEMBER 24.

S. Holmes, Thomas-ſtreet, Southwark, merchant.
J. Furber, and T. Warrington, of Warnford court, merchants.
R. Little, L. Little, A. Little, and M. E. Little, Southwell, Nottingham, woollen-drapers.
W. Hawkſey, Liverpool, merchant.
J. Morley, Walcot, in Somerſetſhire, victualler.
J. Davis, Fullwood-rents, Holborn, victualler.
J. Richardſon, Carliſle, grocer.
D. Mayman, Bailey Carr, Yorkſhire, clothier.
T. W. Copper, Pancraſs-lane, warehouſeman.
J. Finlayſon, Liverpool, merchant.
P. Chamberlin, Norwich, linen-draper.
T. Coulſon, Fenchurch-ſtreet, cheeſemonger.

NOVEMBER 28.

W. Maſters the elder, and W. Maſters the younger, Greenwich, diſtillers.
P. Wilſon, Wardour ſtreet, victualler.
J. Evans, Wapping, linen draper.
D. Cameron, Alderſgate-ſtreet, jeweller.
S. James, Croſs-ſtreet, Holborn, hardwareman.
C. Tonge, Liverpool, merchant.
G. Heaton the younger, Leeds, Yorkſhire, oil-merchant.
T. Hayman, Biſhopſgate-ſtreet, merchant.
G. Fryer, Red-lion-ſtreet, Clerkenwell, merchant.
C. Roſe, Weſtminſter, cheeſemonger.
T. Robinſon, Fulſhaw, Cheſter, corn-dealer.
J. Lawſon, Montague-ſtreet, Spital-fields, chair-maker.
R. Hughes, Chandos-ſtreet, woollen-draper.
T. Stewart, Dorſet-ſquare, Weſtminſter, broker.
R. Grange, York-place, Portman-ſquare, miller.
A. Martin, and T. Martin, Panton-ſtreet, Haymarket, cabinet makers.
W. Chivers, Newgate-ſtreet, upholder.
W. Brown, and J. Yoxen, Jermyn-ſtreet, St. James', ſhoemakers.
W. Smart, Vigo-lane, Weſtminſter, carpenter.
L. Solomon, St. Martin's-le-Grand, merchant.
J. Wallis, Paternoſter-row, bookſeller.

DECEMBER 1.

M. Bourk, New-ſquare, London, ſlopſeller.
A. Whiting, Long-acre, coach-maker.
D. Hodgkins, Liverpool, brush-maker.
S. Calvert, Liverpool, dealer.
G. Merriman, Stockport, Cheſter, dealer.

DECEMBER 5.

J. Hudſwell, Cancliffe, in Yorkſhire, corn-dealer.
J. Edwards, Benſington, Oxford, miller.
J. Barker, Upper Thames-ſtreet, grocer.
J. P. Offner, Kingland-road, brewer.
T. Rodd, Gerrard-ſtreet, jeweller.
J. Henderſon, Long-acre, furniſhing-ironmonger.
E. Doran, and A. Whiting, Long-acre, coach-maker.
J. Ainſley, Newcaſtle-upon-Tyne, woollen-draper.
R. Beresford, Alfreton, in Derbyſhire, hoſier.
J. Harris, Newton St. Cyres, Devonſhire, miller.
R. Child, Walcot, Somerſetſhire, carpenter.
N. Noble, Berrier, Cumberland, dealer in butter.
G. Haſleden, Liverpool, bookſeller.
J. Dawſon, Manchester, dealer.
L. Bucknell, Kenſington, haberdaſher.
H. Deaves, Liverpool, merchant.

DECEMBER 8.

C. Holt, Leather-lane, Holborn, warehouſeman.

F. Fiſher, Chepſtow, Monmouthſhire, currier.

G. Arthur, Shipley Mill, Northumberland, miller.

A. Z. D. Cuvelje, Lancaſter, merchant.

J. Clayton, Sedgeberrow, Worceſterſhire, mealman.

A Houldſworth, and H. Gravenor, Baſinghall-ſtreet, warehouſmen,

DECEMBER 12.

T. Blany, Bouverie-ſtreet, White-friars, mariner.

T. Wigful, King's Lynn, in Norfolk, ironfounder.

E. Tompkins, and R. Tompkins, Deretend, Birmingham, plated ink-ſtand-makers.

W. Rawlings, Gracechurch-ſtreet, grocer.

W. Newton, Exeter, druggiſt.

W. Stevens, Exeter, ſadler.

H. Deaves, Liverpool, merchant.

J. Dunecliff, Leiceſter, tea dealer.

J. Avery, Queen-ſquare, organ builder.

E. Medley, Parliament-ſtreet, ſcrivener.

J. Mouls, Hampſtead, corn-chandler.

T. Cathro, Old Gravel-lane, baker.

DECEMBER 15.

J. Sproſton, Liverpool, merchant.

C. Clegg, Milnrow, Lancaſter, woollen-manufacturer.

T. Mann, Howard-ſtreet, St. Clement Danes, dealer.

D. N. Beckman, Princes-row, Mile-end New-town, ſugar-grinder.

G. F. Benekirt, Swan-mead, Bermondſey, leather dreſſer.

P. Drinkwater, Manchеſter, and T. Dakeyne, Darley-dale, Derbyſhire, corn-factors.

C. Marriott, Manchеſter, merchant.

J. Mitchell, Long-acre, cheeſemonger.

J. Smee, Newington-place, Surry, potter.

DECEMBER 19.

J. Marſh, Shad Thames, ſhipwright.

T. Madden, Pages-walk, Bermondſey, victualler.

J. Figgins, Trowbridge, carpenter.

W. Blagrove, Abington, Berks, miller.

G. Liddell, Newcaſtle-upon-Tyne, merchant.

W. Schultze, and P. Unger, Little-Britain, merchants.

A. Young, Briſtol, corn-factor.

J. F. Norman, Briſtol, baker.

G. Glover, Dean-ſtreet, Soho, grocer.

R. Rogers, Caiſcon, Monmouth, dealer.

D. Penny the younger, Wapping, ſhipchandler.

D. Brien, James-ſtreet, Covent-garden, victualler.

J. Stone, Liverpool, victualler.

W. Bullen, Plymouth-dock, linen-draper.

J. Evatt, Rood-lane, glaſſman.

J. Welden, Lawrence-lane, warehouſeman.

DECEMBER 22.

W. Field, Old Cavendiſh-ſtreet, painter.

P. de Baruch Toledano, Great Aylie-ſtreet, Goodman's-fields, merchant.

J. Morris, St. John-ſtreet, Weſtminſter, money-ſcrivener.

T. Juxon, Birmingham, cornfactor.

T. Arnold, Wolverhampton, baker.

R. Smith, Liverpool, dealer.

W. Holmes, Otley, Yorkſhire, mercer.

S. King, Glouceſter, ſhopkeeper.

E. Parker, Stevenage, Herts, corn-dealer.

W. Key, Duke-ſtreet, Aldgate, man's-mercer.

J. Brady, Ipſwich, linen-draper.

DECEMBER 26.

J. Cowgill, Manchеſter, merchant.

J. Daniel, Liverpool, merchant.

J. C. Morrey, Manchеſter, cotton-manufacturer.

T. Fothergill, Manchеſter, merchant.

G. Mallifon, Gauxholme, Lancaſhire, corn-miller.

G. Woolridge, Wimborn-minſter, Dorſetſhire, dealer.

J. Adams, Brompton, Kent, butcher.

R. Thomas, Broad-ſtreet, St. Giles, glaſs-ſeller.

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Chriſtened,		Buried,	
Males -	9400	Males -	9661
Females -	8414	Females -	9713
In all	17,814	In all	19,374

Whereof have died,

Under two years	5395	Sixty and ſeventy	1482
Between 2 & five	2063	Seventy & eighty	1047
Five and ten	843	Eighty and ninety	437
Ten and twenty	639	Ninety & a hundred	64
Twenty & thirty	1481	A hundred	1
Thirty and forty	1924	A hundred and one	5
Forty and fifty	2128	A hundred and two	1
Fifty and ſixty	1817		

Decreaſed in the Burials this Year 3694.

AVERAGE PRICES of CORN.
December 19, 1801.
By the Winchester Quarter of 8 Buſhels.

Inland Counties.

	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middleſex	80	2	—	—	42	7	27	2
Surry	81	0	38	6	44	0	27	2
Hertford	69	6	46	3	44	3	28	3
Bedford	69	7	50	4	41	11	26	7
Huntingdon	73	10	—	—	41	8	19	6
Northampton	72	0	—	—	41	0	20	6
Rutland	71	0	—	—	45	0	21	0
Leiceſter	75	9	47	0	41	8	21	2
Nottingham	79	9	52	0	50	6	25	2
Derby	82	4	—	—	51	0	25	0
Stafford	76	0	—	—	49	2	28	0
Salop	80	6	57	2	49	8	26	8
Hereford	73	0	57	6	48	0	25	10
Worceſter	81	8	48	0	41	5	31	5
Warwick	82	4	—	—	45	5	28	9
Wilts	66	0	—	—	41	10	28	6
Berks	76	4	—	—	39	0	27	2
Oxford	71	0	—	—	39	5	23	7
Bucks	73	0	—	—	39	10	24	2
Brecon	76	1	—	—	51	2	19	7
Montgomery	81	7	54	4	44	6	21	4
Radnor	86	8	—	—	44	7	26	2

Maritime Counties.

Eſſex	75	0	41	0	42	8	27	8
Kent	74	1	39	0	35	10	29	11
Suſſex	68	8	—	—	41	8	26	4
Suffolk	70	1	40	0	42	11	24	1
Cambridge	70	0	40	8	38	5	19	0
Norfolk	70	10	40	8	40	0	22	6
Lincoln	73	10	52	9	41	6	20	8
York	69	5	44	9	43	2	21	2
Durham	71	7	—	—	45	0	19	11
Northumberland	65	6	43	0	35	6	21	0
Cumberland	89	9	57	0	44	2	24	10
Weſtmorland	82	3	53	8	49	5	24	10
Lancaſter	79	8	—	—	53	5	24	2
Cheſter	72	6	—	—	56	4	25	8
Flint	70	7	—	—	62	6	—	—
Denbigh	81	1	—	—	56	2	22	5
Angleſea	None		bro't for Sale				—	—
Carnarvon	75	0	50	0	46	4	24	0
Merioneth	81	4	52	0	45	0	24	0
Cardigan	72	9	—	—	38	8	12	1
Pembroke	62	7	—	—	39	6	16	0
Carmarthen	69	10	—	—	41	7	17	7
Glamorgan	75	5	—	—	39	2	21	7
Glouceſter	72	6	—	—	42	9	25	6
Somerſet	72	6	—	—	43	0	21	8
Monmouth	78	2	—	—	48	8	—	—
Devon	75	8	—	—	39	7	24	0
Cornwall	73	9	—	—	35	7	17	0
Dorſet	73	11	—	—	43	9	32	9
Hants	70	6	—	—	42	0	26	7

Average of England and Wales.

Per Quarter	74	10	47	10	44	1	23	10

Dec. 26—Peck Loaf, 4s 0d.

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL, November 1801.

D.	H.	Baro.	T. out	T. in	H.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c. Rain 3,33
1	8	29,83	57	59,5	77	5	SW 3	drizzly. rain. fine
	2	29,79	59	61,5	71	2	WSW 2	. little rain. cloudleſs eve. cloudy: much rain
2	8	29,44	55	57,5	84	6	S 2	rain and more wind: chiefly fine and fair
	2	28,97	56	59	74	5	SSW 4	rain at times. wind NW and fair eve. fine and
3	8	30,03	38,9	52,5	65	2	NNW 1	. cloudy [leſs wind
	2	29,94	43	52	70	4	E 2	. drizzly eve. much rain
4	8	29,23	47,5	54	88	f	SSW 0	rain and thick fog. no fog but rainy
	2	29,28	49	54,5	82	5	N 1	little rain. windy eve. fine: leſs wind
5	8	30,08	33,5	48,5	61	r	NW 2	hazy
	2	30,23	39,5	48	60	r	NNW 2	hazy
6	8	30,46	31,5	44	70	1	WNW 1	foggy
N	2	30,44	42,5	46	69	2	WNW 1	hazy. clear night
7	8	30,13	35	45	73	f	N 1	: little rain
	2	29,92	42	46	72	f	N 1	continual rain: fine
8	8	29,94	37	44,5	74	2	WSW 1	foggy. little wet: fine
	2	30,04	47,5	48	75	3	WSW 1	. low fog at eve and clear upward
9	8	30,21	41	47,5	80	f	WNW 1	. leſs fog and not cloudy
	2	30,20	48	50	79	f	WNW 1	. no fog at night but thick upward
10	8	30,14	44,9	50,5	79	f	N 0	
	2	30,09	45	52	75	h	N 1	
11	8	29,92	42,5	52,5	87	f	NE 1	. fine
	2	29,88	54	55	78	3	S 1	
12	8	29,92	47,5	53	67	f	S 1	not cloudy. fine: hazy
	2	29,97	50,5	54,5	74	3	S 1	hazy. foggy night: fine. foggy
13	8	30,04	40	50,5	82	f	N 1	: rain
	2	30,04	45	51,	84	f	N 1	rain. fair eve
14	8	30,20	44	50,5	78	3	N 0	foggy
	2	30,24	44,5	52	78	3	S 1	foggy. leſs foggy and cloudleſs eve.
15	8	30,31	43,5	50	79	3	S 1	little foggy. cloudy
	2	30,30	54	53	81	5	S 1	. drizzly eve. fine: clear
16	8	30,31	49,5	52,5	77	f	S 1	not cloudy. cloudy
	2	30,31	55	55	76	5	SW 1	
17	8	30,29	52,5	55	71	5	SW 1	foggy and drizzly
	2	30,23	54,5	56,5	78	5	SW 1	hazy. little rain at night
18	8	29,91	50	54	69	3	SW 1	foggy. cloudy and chiefly gentle rain
	2	29,84	51	55	74	5	W 1	little rain. fine night: clear
19	8	29,71	38	49	72	f	W 1	. fine
	2	29,76	43,5	51,5	68	2	W 1	hazy. clear night: thick upward
20	8	29,98	37	46	75	h	W 1	. not cloudy
F	2	29,94	41,5	48,5	74	h	W 1	. gentle rain at eve. more wind: fine. ſtorm
21	8	29,51	43	49	73	1	WNW 2	: thick upward. little wet [ſhower
	2	29,55	44,5	50	70	h	W 2	little rain. chiefly fine: clear
22	8	29,60	37	41	67	1	NW 2	. more wind
	2	29,67	41,5	47,5	66	1	NNW 4	. leſs wind
23	8	29,92	32,5	40	65	1	WNW 1	hazy
	2	29,94	38,5	46	65	3	WNW 2	. calm cloudy eve: gentle rain
24	8	29,67	44	47	80	f	WNW 1	. gentle rain at times
	2	29,68	50	49,5	80	5	WNW 1	. clear eve
25	8	29,85	41	48	72	f	W 1	. fine
	2	29,81	47	50	71	3	W 2	hazy. cloudy. rainy eve: clear
26	8	29,51	43,5	50	70	1	WNW 2	
	2	29,55	45,5	50	65	2	W 1	. clear night: thick upward
27	8	29,29	37,5	47	75	f	W 0	. wind E and much ſnow: fair
	2	28,98	37,5	47,5	82	h	E 1	. little ſnow at times. drizzly eve: fine
28	8	29,47	37	46	65	2	NNW 1	: hazy
	2	29,62	38,5	46,5	74	2	NNW 1	hazy. foggy. cloudleſs night
29	8	29,76	28,5	39	73	1	WNW 0	hazy. foggy
	2	29,70	30,5	42,5	75	f	WNW 0	not cloudy. thick upward at night: gentle
30	8	29,19	36	43	82	h	ENE 1	gentle rain. little ſnow. fair: little rain [rain
	2	29,13	38	44,5	80	h	E 1	little rain and ſnow. fine eve and wind SW

PRICES of STOCKS, from NOVEMBER 26 to DECEMBER 24 1801, both inclusive.

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26		66 ⅛	67 ⅛ ⅛	85 ⅛	100	98 ⅜	19 ⅝		215		12 ⅛	11s. pr.		
27	187	66 ⅛	67 ⅛ ⅛	85	100	98 ⅜	19 ⅝		216			10		
28		66 ⅛	67 ⅛ ⅛	85	100	98 ⅜	19 ⅝	5 ⅛			12	10		
30		66 ⅛	67 ⅛ ⅛	85								9	16 5 0	9 18
1	187 ¼	66 ⅛	67 ⅛ ⅛	84 ⅞	100	98 ⅜	19 ⅝		216			8		
2		67 ⅛	shut.	85	100 ¼	98 ⅜	19 ⅝	5 ⅛		66 ½	12	8		
3	187 ¼	67 ⅛	68 ⅝ ⅞		shut.	98 ⅜	19 ⅝			66 ½	12			
4	188 ½	67 ⅛	68 ⅝ 9 ¼			99	20	5 ⅛		66 ½	12 ⅛	8		
5		67 ⅛		85 ⅝		99	20	5 ⅛		66 ½	12 ⅛	7		
7		67 ⅛	69 ⅛			98 ⅞	19 ⅞	5 ⅛		66 ½		7		
8	188	67 ⅛		85		99 ⅛	19 ⅞	5 ⅛		66 ½	12 ⅛	7		
9	187 ½	67		84 ½		98 ⅛	19 ⅝			66		7		
10	187 ½	67 ⅛		84 ½		98 ⅛	19 ⅝		219	66 ⅛	12	7		
11	187	67 ⅛		84 ½		98 ⅜	19 ⅝			66 ⅛	12	5		
12	186 ½	67 ⅛		84 ½		98 ⅜	19 ⅝	5 ⅛			12 ⅛	6		
14		67		84 ½		98 ⅜	19 ⅝	5 ⅛				3		
15	186 ½	66 ⅞		83 ⅞		98 ⅛	19 ⅝	5 ⅛		66 ¼	12	2		
16	186 ½	66 ⅞		83 ½		97 ¼	19 ½	5 ⅛		65 ⅞	12	1		
17	188	67 ⅛		84 ⅛		98 ⅛	19 ⅝	5 ⅛		66 ¼	12	1		
18		66 ¼				98	19 ⅝	5 ⅛		66 ¼	12	par	16 6 0	
19	188	67		83 ¾		98 ¼	19 ½	5 ⅛						
21														
22		67 ⅛		83 ⅞		98 ⅛	19 ⅝	5 ⅛		66 ⅛	12			
23		67 ⅛		83 ½		98 ⅛	19 ⅝	5 ⅛						
24		67 ¼		83 ⅞		98	19 ⅝	5 ⅛				1s. pr.		
25														
26														

☞ In the 3 per Cent. conſols. the higheſt and loweſt Price of each Day is given; in every other Article the higheſt Price only, the Long, Short, and Imperial Annuities excepted, which are given within a ſixteenth of the higheſt Price. In the different Funds that are ſhut, the Prices are given with the Dividend till the Days of Opening.

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